COMPASSIONATE BEHAVIOR IN CHILDREN:
MEASUREMENT AND PREDICTION

By

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Measurement and prediction of compassionate behavior in children were investigated using several approaches. Sixty fourth-, fifth-, and sixth grade students who were randomly selected from those students for whom parent consent forms were available participated in the study. Self-Report, Parent, and Peer Checklists and Teacher, Parent and Peer Rating Scales were administered to the students and their teachers, peers, and parents. All students participated in the non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment, which consisted of the opportunity for students to respond compassionately to a sad and distressed confederate child. Students were left alone in a room with the confederate child; all behavior and verbal interactions were recorded by audio-video equipment. Data were also gathered regarding students' immediate emotions prior to the experiment, emotional changes during the experiment, perceptions of the confederate's emotional state. All checklists and rating scales were rated and coded. Audio-visual tapes were rated by three independent judges. Immediate emotions, emotional changes, perceptions, and cognitions were categorized and coded.

Step-wise regression analyses indicated all of the checklists and rating scales to be significant predictors of students' situational responding in the compassionate-stimulus experiment, and to account for 20.3% of the variance of students' responses. A second step-wise reression analysis, for which the pseudo scales (derived from Self-Report and Parent Checklists) and Altruistic/Reciprocity Ratio (A/R)(derived from the Self-Report Checklist) were included in addition to the rating scales and checklists, indicated the Peer Checklist, Peer Rating Scale, Self-Report Pseudo Scale, Self-Report Checklist, A/R ratio, Parent Checklist, and Teacher Rating Scales, to account for 26% of the students' situational responding. A third step-wise regression analysis indicated the students' cognitions regarding their perceptions of the confederate's emotional state to be a significant predictor and to control for 7% of the variance of students' responses. Pearson correlations demonstrated many significant correlations among the checklists and rating scales, and for the rating scales and checklists with the Compassion Behavior Ratings of students' situational responding. ANOVA statistics demonstrated differences among sex, teachers, grade levels, and confederates on some indices of measurement for students. Frequency analyses showed in the compassion-stimulus experiment that only 11.7% of the students responded with verbal concern toward the confederate. It is concluded that compassionate behavior can now be measured and situational compassionate responding can be predicted for fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade children.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Compassion is an expression used endlessly by writers in a diversity of areas and reflects any of a multitude of interpretations in the literature. Yet, a common thread of propitious consequences for the recipient is implied. Certainly, when a human being benefits from the actions of a kindred spirit, society as a whole will profit. A society with caring, loving, compassionate people will in turn evolve into a compassionately involved society. Children of such a public spirited humanity will acquire much from this to then shower upon subsequent generations.

Virtuous behavior--as compassionate responding implies--seems to be an important area for social scientists to investigate. Research under the rubric of positive social behaviors has increasingly filled the pages of psychological and sociological journals. This movement seems to have begun the awakening of human sensitivity to the expression of more humane values. The focus on measurement and prediction of compassionate behaviors in children will hopefully enhance and expand these research endeavors.

Compassion is described in Webster's New Twentieth Century Dictionary (1977, p. 369) as, ". . .a suffering with another; hence, sympathy sorrow for the distress or misfortunes of another, with the desire to help; pity; commiseration." In the field of psychology compassion represents a broader range of behaviors.

May (1972) accredited compassion as a form of love grounded on knowing and understanding another human. Compassion evolves from the human's recognition of his or her community and it is the acceptance that all humanity is reduced with the loss of even one of its members.

Intrapersonally, compassion is total acceptance of all aspects of the personality (May, 1972).

Landsman (1974) postulated that compassion is an integral stage of existence for the "beautiful and noble" person; the other two stages comprising self-loving and environmental-loving existences. Compassion is the quality possessed by a human who develops long, caring and intense relationships in which he or she conveys deep love while maintaining the capacity to express constructive anger. A compassionate human usually excites in another's existence and is actively involved in and/or deeply respectful of the quality of life for all (Landsman, 1974).

Frequently, compassion joins the assemblage of many other terms which exist under the rubric of positive social or prosocial behavior. Definitions provided for these prosocial terms reflect particular intentions and/or theoretical styles of the appropriate writers. This seems especially true for compassionate behaviors described and defined for children.

Prosocial behaviors are assigned to be beneficial for the recipient; the benefits produced and the sacrifices demanded often vary with the individuals (Staub, 1978, 1974; Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977). Altruism is the expression of those prosocial behaviors which appear to have high costs associated with them and which are not associated with material or social rewards (Bryan & London, 1970). Staub (1978) believes, however, that internal rewards are experienced. Three criteria assigned for the expression of altruistic behaviors include that the act is (a) an end in itself and not directed toward self gain; (b) performed voluntarily; and (c) efficacious for the recipient (Leeds,1963).

Bryant and Crokenberg (1980) stated that prosocial behavior refers to activities undertaken for the well being of others. Operationally, prosocial refers to a cluster of behaviors including comforting, sharing, defending, rescuing, and cooperating. Individuals may exhibit these behaviors for another's benefit and/or for themselves. Nevertheless, few relationships have been found among these various measures of prosocial behavior (Mussen, Rutherford, Harris, & Keasey, 1970).

Prosocial beahvior is thought to be guided by moral values and principles. Proscriptive values and standards prohibit actions which will harm others. Prescriptive values and standards inform individuals about what they should do to help others (Staub, 1979).

The function of social groups and welfare of their individual members are believed to be crucially dependent upon these beneficial behaviors. Cooperation is needed in meeting the needs of intimate and other close relationships. Prosocial behaving is especially important in society because some people can not help themselves, e.g., a blind person crossing the street. Additional important and auspicious behaviors include saving someone from drowning, dying for the protection of one's group, and helping another who is in physical or psychological distress (Staub, 1978).

Although previously mentioned behaviors are inclusive of compassionate behaviors, the particular behaviors involved in compassionate responding are not delineated. The ambiguity existing in defining children's compassionate expressions presents problems for research in this area. Failure to emphasize qualities attributed specifically to compassion in children may reflect the difficulty involved in behaviorally defining compassion and the confusion resulting from the seemingly endless inclusion of behaviors under the rubric of prosocial.

Recently compasson in children has been behaviorally defined using children's descriptions of their behavioral interpretations of compassion The resulting definition characterizes the compassionate child:

> She/He gives others his/her own material possessions: i.e., sharing lunch, lending or giving something treasured personally.
> He/She spends time and effort for the benefit of others: i.e., making something for someone, visiting a sick friend or family member,going to an event with a friend even though he/she is not interested in the event.
> She/He cares deeply for others.
> He/She expresses care and the accompanying emotional feelings: i.e., expressing love for a close one, writing a song or poem for a friend, talking about personal feelings, expressing care or concern for someone hurt, possibly even to the extent of risking harm to self, talking with someone who is down or crying. (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981, p. 3])

Most kids express some of these behaviors; however, compassionate children tend to express most, if not all, of these behaviors much more frequently than the other children (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

Measurement and Prediction

Standardized methods for measuring prosocial and, in particular, compassionate behaviors have not been successfully developed for general use. Rather the present methods of assessing these behaviors include situational tests using controlled settings, ratings to evaluate one's standing in a certain attribute, sociometric questionnaires, peers; and (d) naturalistic observations (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977). These approaches to measurement have limited use alone and they often involve extended time periods for execution; however, some validity has been demonstrated (Staub, 1978, 1979; Krebs & Sturrup, 1974; Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

A Florida research team has developed a self-report checklist (see Appendix A) designed to measure compassion in children. The checklist consists of short statements in which the child is to check those applicable to him or her. The statements are constructed from children's descriptions of their meaning of compassion. Test-retest reliability was found to be high (.84); limited validational data are inconclusive (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

Checklists have also been devised for parents and peers (see Appendix A) which reflect their perceptions of the child's compassionate expressions. Rating scales (see Appendix B) have been developed for teachers, parents, and peers based on the definition for compassion extracted from the children (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

Bem and Allen (1974) found that individuals are capable of accurately reporting how consistent they are in expressing certain behaviors, e.g., conscientiousness and friendliness. They found self-reports of consistency to be significantly related to the actual behavior of these same individuals.

Krebs and Sturrup (1974) provided validity for the teacher's ratings. Incidents of actual offering of children's help and making responsible suggestions to others were highly correlated with independently derived teacher's ratings.

Longitudinal correlations of prosocial actions over five- to six- year time periods indicate possession of enduring prosocial qualities (Baumrind, 1971). At the present, however, this phenomenon is moot (Staub, 1978, 1979).

Statement of the Problem

Valid measurement and prediction of compassionate behaviors in children are lacking. Limited correlational data are available for certain positive social behaviors; however, no standardized instruments are in use for valid measurement and prediction of these behaviors; this is expecially true for compassionate behaviors. Only recently have these compassionate expressions been behaviorally defined. A compassion self-report checklist has been developed with adequate test-retest reliability data available; however, validity has not been established.

Self-report checklists, parent and peer checklists, and rating scales for parents, peers, and teachers need adequate validation. The predictive power of these instruments requires demonstration. This can be accomplished by finding out which of the checklists and rating scales actually predict situationally expressed compassionate behaviors in a non-evaluative setting. In addition, other variables such as children's cognitions, emotions, and perceptions possibly influencing situational responding need to be taken into account. This study will explore the need for instruments to measure and predict compassionate behaviors.

Hypotheses

The purpose of the study is to investigate the power of compassion measurement instruments to predict non-evaluated situationally expressed compassionate behaviors as well as to investigate the predictive power of other situational variables possibly affecting compassionate responding. The hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1

The Compassion Self-Report Checklist, the Parent Compassion Checklist, and the Peer Compassion Checklist do not predict the student's behavior in a non-evaluative Compassion-Stimulus experiment.

Hypothesis 2

The Parent Compassion Rating Scale, the Teacher Compassion Rating Scale, and the Peer Compassion Rating Scale do not predict the student's behavior in a non-evaluative Compassion-Stimulus experiment.

Hypothesis 3

The compassionate checklists and rating scales are not correlated with one another.

Hypothesis 4

The student's immediate emotions prior to the non-evaluative Compassion-Stimulus experiment, the student's emotional changes during the non-evaluative Compassion-Stimulus experiment, the student's cognitions regarding the emotionally distressed confederate, and the student's perceptions of the distressed confederate's emotional state do not predict the student's behavior in a non-evaluative Compassion-Stimulus experiment.

Definition of Terms

Terms important to the understanding of the research and discussion are operationally defined to facilitate consistency in interpretation.

Situational Tests

Situational tests are controlled settings designed to elicit prosocial responses. A typical situational test for assessing children's willingness to share consists of the children performing a particular task for which they win prizes. Later the children have an opportunity to donate some of these prizes to other children (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977, pp. 15-16).

Ratings

Ratings are usually made by teachers and assess the child's standing on a continuum from high to low in an attribute such as kindness or helpfulness (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977, p. 16).

Sociometric Questionnaires

These questionnaires are typically administered to all students in a class and request that the students name their classmates who best fit certain descriptions, e.g., name three classmates who are most likely to "help another kid who is being picked on" (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg , 1977, p. 17).

Naturalistic Observations

Naturalistic observations focus on the child's behavior in his or her natural environments such as playgrounds,classrooms, and parks. No attempt is made to manipulate the situation; rather, the observer systematically records responses and classifies them into pre-determined categories.

Self-Report Checklist

The self-report checklist consists of a number of statements describing particular behaviors for which the child checks only those statements applicable to him or her.

Power Assertion Discipline

Power assertion, as a form of discipline, refers to the use of physical punishment, deprivation of material objects or privileges, direct use of force, or threats involving any of the three previous descriptions (Staub, 1979, p. 22).

Love Withdrawal Discipline

When the child engages in an undesirable behavior, the parents then give indirect and non-physical expressions of anger and/or disapproval accompanied by ignoring the child, refusing to speak to the child, threatening to leave the child, or other related behaviors (Staub, 1979, p. 23).

Induction Discipline

In induction , the parents explain or give reasons why the child should not behave in certain ways or why he or she should change expressions of present behaviors to more acceptable or desirable behaviors The explanations focus on the consequences which the undesirable behaviors have on other individuals (Staub, 1979, p. 23).

Empathy

Empathy is the vicarious emotional response to another person. When empathically aroused, older children and adults understand that they are responding to something happening to someone else, and they have a sense of what the other person is feeling (Hoffman, 1979, p. 962).

Non-Evaluative Situation

A situation in which the behaviors of experimental participants are not overtly observed by any other people, including experimenters, teachers, and/or peers is non-evaluative. Although the participants are actually observed, they are not aware of this.

Compassion-Stimulus Experiment

In a compassion-stimulus experiment, a stimulus of some type serves to elicit possible compassionate responding. In this experiment a sad and upset confederate child serves as a stimulus to elicit the students to express compassionate responses for the purpose of helping the child to feel better.

Pseudo Scale

The pseudo scale used in the Self-Report and Parent Checklists is a scale assessing for the child's or parent's ability to respond accurately to the compassion checklist. The scale was derived from factorial statistical analysis.

Altruistic/Reciprocity Ratio

This ratio is computed for the revised Self-Report Checklist. The number of altruistic endings which a child checks is divided by the number of reciprocity endings which the child checks. The ratio increases in value as the child checks a larger number of altruistic endings and a smaller number of reciprocity endings.

Plan of Presentation

Presentation of the information relevant to the proposed investigation will be organized into five chapters. The present chapter serves to introduce briefly the subject to the reader, define important terms, and present the hypotheses. The second chapter includes a review of related literature and presentation of pilot study. The third chapter delineates proposed research methodology. Chapters four and five will comprise the analysis and results, summary, conclusions, implications, and recommendations drawn from this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature review presents areas of research which contribute to an overall understanding of the postulations for the investigation which will be completed. Although compassion is not usually addressed specifically in the literature, many compassionate behaviors are comprised under the rubric of positive social and prosocial behaviors.

The chapter is divided into eight sections; the first seven consist of (a) the history of how research on positive social behaviors was initiated, (b) theoretical explanations for positive social behaviors, (c) developmental influences on positive social behaviors, (d) cultural influences on positive social behaviors, (e) parent and family influences on positive social behaviors, (f) situational and personality influences on positive social behaviors, and (g) measurement and prediction of positive social behaviors. The eighth section comprises a pilot study which was conducted to test hypotheses initially presented in order that possible complications could later be avoided and advantageous suggestions could be incorporated in the final dissertation research.

History of Research

Emphases on enhancing human life seem often to evolve as responses to negative social movement rather than action initiated simply to augment healthy human experiences. For example, the Civil Rights Movement was initiated after slavery and oppression in America

(Ryan, 1976), and community psychology was developed for reorganization of already inefficient and unproductive psychological and social systems (Rappaport, 1977).

The current movement in positive social behavior research appears to have begun similarly. Kitty Genovese, a woman who lived in Queens, New York, was fatally stabbed on March, 1964, in the parking lot near her apartment. There were 38 witnesses, none of whom helped or called the police until approximately one-half hour after the woman died. This publicized and alarming incident spurred social psychologists to begin research on positive social behaviors as well as to formulate theories on why people help or do not help others in distress (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

Prior to this, however, a major attempt had been made to study cooperation and generosity in school children (Hartshorne, May, & Maller, 1929). This study yielded findings which suggested that cooperation and generosity were not consistent traits in children; rather, the children's behavior varies according to specific situations encountered. Instead of providing a stimulus for further research, the study served to remove positive social behavior research articles from the pages of psychological and sociological journals. This phenomenon occurred because the classic article highlighted the difficulties of studying prosocial behaviors and therefore discouraged future research in the area (Staub, 1978).

The brevity of prosocial research for the 35 years succeeding the Hartshorne experiment perhaps resulted from the lack of knowledge concerning the antecedents of altruistic and compassionate-type behaviors. Other reasons for neglect may reflect past researchers' focus on problems that threaten the structure or functioning of society, or the lack of standardized methods for assessing these complex prosocial dispositions (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

Many years succeeding the research by Hartshorne, May, and Maller, Burton (1963) statistically analyzed their study of 1929. He completed factor analyses and found a general underlying trait of honesty as well as specific components of honesty to exist for the children (Burton, 1963).

An upsurge of research on positive social behaviors has occurred during the last 15 years. The public has become more aware of long injustices of minority and women, and incidents such as the one experienced by Kitty Genovese. This awareness has awakened human sensitivity and has resulted in the expression and concern for more humane values. An atmosphere which may facilitate efforts of behavioral scientists toward enhancement of valuable human attitudes and behaviors has been created (Staub, 1978).

Theoretical Explanations

Philosophers and psychologists of the past and present have maintained three major conceptions of the origins of positive social behavior: (a) humans are basically bad, selfish, and concerned only with their own welfare (self-seeking), (b) humans are basically good and have the potential to be good, and (c) humans are basically influenced and "produced" by the conditions of social living (Staub, 1979).

Humans as Self-Seeking

Freud (1930) believed sexual and aggressive impulses to be the basic impulses in human morality. He stated that morality develops from society's necessity of restricting the naturally occurring self-seeking character of humans. Freud also believed that norms are created only to protect society from the dangerous impulses of all humans. Jung's (1966) philosophy is somewhat congruent with the existence of this self-seeking character, yet he differed from Freud in his belief that humans have only one side or aspect of them which is inclined to have negative intentions. Restrictive norms and standards however are believed to inhibit the expression of these basic self-seeking impulses which are inherited and can only be controlled by way of social learning experiences (Freud, 1930).

Social experiences were viewed somewhat differently by Lorenz (1967) who adhered that all humans are instinctively aggressive and that this aggression is requisite to allow interactions of all animals with their environment. Although aggression is not learned, the environment was considered necessary only for the expression of these instinctual behavioral patterns rather than to control or limit them (Lorenz, 1967).

The homeostatic-drive theory (Cannon, 1932) also implies the notion of individuals being self-seeking. The human's biological makeup causes a cyclical imbalance which results in psychological states such as hunger, sexual appetite, and thirst. When the drive states occur because of the cyclical imbalance, the organism is activated to reduce the drive and achieve homeostasis. Motivation for approval, affiliation, or other social behaviors is believed to be a result of secondary needs guided by drive and drive reduction (Staub, 1978).

Humans as Basically Good

Maslow (1965) affirmed that if humans' deficiency (biological and

and security) needs are met, then they can devote themselves to fulfilling higher self-needs, such as creativity and love. He assumed that a loving person will naturally care about others around him or her. Compassion, love, and creativeness are a few of the naturally and basic potential characteristics of all humans.

Fromm (1941) believed love and work to be the major facets of a human's life as well as the characteristics of a mature, healthy individual. All humans are capable of loving, for they possess an inherent tendency to actualize their utmost of potentialities. Fromm assumed that all the necessities for expressing concern and love lie within the individual and that external imposition of rules inhibits the human's development of his or her own creative potential.

Humans as Products of Social Living

There are consequences of people living together in social groups; these consequences and influences are believed to be the determinants of positive social behaving. Durkheim (1961) credited social order as the source of morality and positive expression to others. He stated that people tend to follow rules which reflect the nature of society.

Durkheim believed that individuals need attachment with a social group. Humans must obey moral rules out of respect alone; no genuine intrinsic moral temperment exists except to help out a collective social system (Durkheim, 1961).

Recent Theoretical Approaches

A more current interpretation of humans as products of social systems is espoused by Thibaut and Kelley (1959) in their "exchange theory." They suggest that people interact in a manner that leads to gain for all participants involved. A particular human interaction will cease unless there are benefits for both individuals. Once a relationship develops, it is influenced by expectations about how each of the participants will behave. People are guided by the principle of rewards and minimizing costs in order to obtain the most profitable outcomes in any human interaction. Altruism would then be expressive of those behaviors instrumental in receiving further rewards for the individual expressing them (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

This same process is considered to be genetically predisposed according to Trivers (1971) who said that humans are genetically predisposed toward "reciprocal altruism": if one individual engages in an altruistic act, with a second person, that involves some kind of self-sacrifice, the second person will later engage in a reciprocal altruistic act at cost to himself or herself, with the first person benefiting. Campbell (1965) argues that this sort of interacting increases the liklihood of group survival, and therefore it is at least as important as nonreciprocal altruism or even self-centeredness in promoting human existence.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) stated that societal norms are most important in influencing individuals' helping behaviors. A person usually regards norms as rules of behavior and conforms to the particular norm's prescriptions. Two reasons given for the individual's conformity comprise: (a) the presence of his or her concern for negative reactions from others, and (b) the acceptance that norms help define reality and serve to reduce uncertainty for the person (Jones & Gerard, 1967).

Leeds (1963) proposed a norm of giving which states that one should want to give for the value of giving, not necessarily for his or her anticipation of returns. Leeds gave three criteria for evaluating whether a person has reacted to the norm of giving: (a) the helping act is an end in itself, (b) the helping act is emitted voluntarily, and (c) the helping act benefits another (Bar-Tel, 1976).

The norm of social responsibility prescribes that individuals should help those who depend on them and who need their assistance. People who internalize this norm will act on behalf of others, with their own self-approval and self-administered rewards arising from doing what is right (Berkowitz & Connor, 1966; Berkowitz & Friedman, 1967).

A similar norm, the norm of reciprocity, states that people should help those who help them (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977). Internalization involves the same processes prescribed for the previous two norms.

Although norms are considered important in influencing behaviors, they can be paradoxically unrelated to behaving. Acquisition of prosocial values, norms, and behaviors is different than the actual performance of them (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

Because of these apparent contradictions between prescribed norms and actual prosocial behaving, the normative approach is often criticized. Darley and Latane (1970) delineated five criticisms of the approach: (a) the use of a variety of norms to explain altruistic behavior weakens the norm's explanatory usefulness because any behavior can then be described as being normative. (b) Norms often contradict one another and explanation of a particular norm is sometimes used as ex post facto interpretation. (c) Norms are too vaguely stated to guide a concrete act. (d) There is little evidence that people think of norms when behaving altruistically. (e) Experimental findings contradict some of the normative prescriptions (Darley & Latane, 1970).

In reaction to Darley and Latane's criticisms, Schwartz (1973) proposed that altruistic behaviors are guided considerably by personal norms. These norms are defined as the individual's self-expectations of societal norms; they are products of an interaction between learned expectations of societal norms and personal experience. When a person acts according to a personal norm, (a) he or she is aware of the consequences the act may have for others, and (b) his or her behavior depends on the extent to which his or her personal norms correspond to consequences of the act and on his or her feelings of personal responsibility to carry out the act (Schwartz, 1973).

A recent study (Zuckerman & Reiss, 1978) evaluated the relative utility of three models in the prediction of one form of helping behavior (donating blood). One of the models evaluated was Schwartz's (1973) personal norm model described previously. Schwartz stated that the relationship between personal norms and actual helping would be stronger among people who ascribe responsibility to the self rather than among those who deny self-responsibility.

The second model evaluated (Fishbein, 1967) suggested that individuals' behaviors are determined by their intentions to perform the behaviors. Intentions are a function of attitudes toward performing the behaviors and attitudes toward the individual's subjective norms. Attitudes comprise the amount of affect for or against the perceived consequences for a particular behavior. Subjective norms consist of human's beliefs about whether significant others think they should or should not perform the behaviors. These subjective norms are determined by the individual's perceptions of and motivations to comply with these prescriptions espoused by significant others (Fishbein, 1967).

The theory of self-monitoring (Snyder, 1970) was the third model evaluated. The model espoused that social behavior may be determined by situational cues of appropriateness and/or the person's inner state (dispositions and attitudes). High self-monitoring individuals tend to monitor behavioral cues on the basis of situational cues; these individuals, then, are expected to vary their behavior across situations as a function of differences in the setting itself. Consequently, they will probably show only a weak relationship between attitudes and behaviors. Low self-monitoring individuals tend to guide their behavior largely on the basis of pertinent inner states; therefore, inner states tend to covary with their behavior to a much greater extent than situations tend to do so (Snyder, 1970).

In the study evaluating these three models, Zuckerman and Reiss (1978) gave predictive questionnaires to 25 male and female undergraduate students. The questionnaires included four attitude measures (intention to donate, attitudes toward donating, social and moral norms) and two personality measures (ascription of responsibility and self-monitoring). The dependent measure was the individual's donation of blood.

Zuckerman and Reiss (1978) found the Fishbein's model received the strongest support. Behavior was demonstrated to be a function of intentions and attitudes, and intentions were found to be a function of the individual attitudes, social norms, and moral norms. The variance of predicted behavior was most accounted for by specific attitudes and less accounted for by general intentions.

Staub (1978) recently yielded his comprehensive model for predicting prosocial behavior. Staub assumed that personal motives or goals motivate behavior; therefore, behavior is purposeful. Personality characteristics of individuals are, in turn, important in determining whether the personal goals are activated or satisfied. Several contributors to prosocial goal fulfillment exist and consist of the individual's values, norms, beliefs, and his or her tendency to react empathically. Specific properties of a particular personal goal include (a) the individual's unique manner of thinking (cognitive network), (b) the individual's desirability of, or aversion to, certain outcomes, and (c) the individual's arousal of tension upon goal activations. The activation of any goal is determined by two major aspects: the nature of of situation encountered and the nature and characteristics of the individual's own personality (Staub, 1978).

Developmental Influences

Three major areas of development consist of the (a) identification-internalization approach, (b) social-learning approach, and (c) cognitive development approach. Three questions are usually asked with regard to these approaches: (a) What antecedent conditions are of interest to the investigators of a particular approach in exploring children's learning and development? (b) By what mechanisms and accompanying principles does learning or change evolve? (c) What are the consequences of primary interest and what is learned? (Staub, 1978).

Identification-Internalization

The basic concepts for this developmental orientation are derived from psychoanalytic and learning theories. This combination originated with Dollard and Miller's (1950) translation of psychoanalytic concepts into learning terms which then resulted in psychoanalytic concepts being applied to children's learning and development (Staub, 1979). Researchers in this area are primarily concerned with the kind of social experiences that lead to the learning or moral values and beliefs by children as opposed to the effects of socialization experiences or resulting moral values on behavior (Staub, 1979).

Development by way of identification suggests that children learn through identifying with their parents (Freud, 1930); however, this concept has been poorly defined. More specifically, adopting interests and goals of another person as one's own and wanting to be like others are regarded as forms of identification (Staub, 1979).

Internalization of societal values and standards are considered to be essential steps in moral development. Internalization can develop directly from identification with another person or in other ways, e.g., one's own experience. Parents and other significant persons administer sanctions to the individual when he or she deviates from the prescribed moral values, norms, or standards of conduct, and they administer rewards when the individual adheres to these same standards. Children then learn what is expected of them at an early age; therefore, they behave according to these expectations to gain rewards and avoid punishments. The concept of internalization is used to explain how an individual becomes governor of her or his own moral values via accepting moral values of society as his or her own, and subsequently guiding behaviors expressed by these moral values (Staub, 1979).

Social Learning

Social learning developmental theory bases itself upon the specific principles of learning: reinforcement, punishment, and modeling. These principles are instrumental in determining what children learn and how they develop (Staub, 1979; Bandura, 1969). Cognitive mediators, as integral aspects of social learning developmental theory, have been stressed by more recent writers. Cognitive mediators used by individuals serve to influence their subsequent behaviors, e.g., using plans and strategies through self-talking; this then results in desired actions (Mischel, 1976). Mischel (1976), Meichenbaum (1974) and Bandura (1969) have used the concept of "expectancy" of reward and punishment as a determinant of actions. Expectancies are believed to have cognitive consequences which, in turn, influence resulting behaviors.

Research in social-learning developmental approaches focuses on behavior rather than how learning or development occurs. The immediate consequences of reinforcement, punishment, and modeling are evaluated such that behavior is the demonstration of social influences (Staub, 1979; Bandura, 1969).

Cognitive and Moral Development

An underlying assumption of the cognitive developmental approach states that people process information according to certain rules of logical operations and that some of these rules are epistemologically better than others. Morality and external reality are reasoned by individuals as the same. In the development of humans, each logic or cognitive system is replaced with a more effective one. Each one of the cognitive systems is qualitatively different from the others; therefore, change involves reorganization of the whole system, rather than simple alterations. The conception of moral development is predicated on cognitive development. Cognitive structures have to be advanced to the extent that necessary preconditions for moral structural changes are created. The motivation for change is enacted when the present system of reasoning is inadequate or ineffective in accounting for new experience

(Piaget, 1932; Flavell, 1977; Staub, 1979; Kohlberg, 1969).

Research in Moral and Cognitive Development

Prior to helping another human, an individual must be able to perceive and interpret situations accurately and to understand the feelings and emotions of the other. The individual must also be cognizant of the needs and desires of the other human as well as being capable of effecting the beneficial accompanying actions. These processes involve several fundamental cognitive processes: perception, thinking, reasoning, problem-solving, and decision-making. At very early stages, children are not able to perceive and interpret other's needs, nor are they able to enact appropriate and effective prosocial behaviors. Researchers, therefore, are interested in when a child can act prosocially and the processes influencing this environment (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

Staub (1970) carried out an experiment which initially seemed to be somewhat disconcerting regarding children's cognitive development and their helping behaviors. He discovered that as the age of children increases, helping behavior first increased but in the latter ages tended to decrease. Sixth-graders helped only about as much as kindergartners. Staub expected that helping would increase with age because older children learn they are expected to help and they become more competent at this; however this was not supported. Therefore, Staub asked the older children to give reasons for their unexpected behavior. The sixth-grade children's comments suggested that they were more concerned with acting properly and not doing anything which could be interpreted as socially inappropriate than with acting according to values that promote helping others.

These findings elicited exploration of the hypothesis that older children fear disapproval for subjectively perceived socially inappropriate behaviors. Experiments to test this hypothesis were enacted by having seventh-grade boys and girls listen to sounds of distress from another child in an adjoining room. Staub (1971) found that children who were given permission to go freely into the adjoining room helped significantly more often than children who were not given this permission or were prohibited from entering the adjoining room. These findings support the assumption that perceived rules of proper social behavior affect children's behavior (Staub, 1971).

Bar-Tel (1976) stated that children's motives for expressing helping behaviors need to be assessed. He contested the assumptions of some researchers that altruistic motives always accompany helping behaviors. He believed that these behaviors may be elicited from social desirability or approval motives. He tested his hypothesis by constructing four successive situations in which fourth, sixth, and eighth-grade children were given the opportunity to donate. If a particular child did not donate in situation one, situation two was presented and so on until the child was progressed through all four situations.

Immediately preceding the successive enactment of the four situations, the experimenter informed the child that she or he now had the opportunity to donate present earnings. After this the child was subjected to one or more of the following successive situations: (a) The experimenter left the room while the child did or did not donate. (b) A confederate volunteer for the crippled gave a talk to the experimenter on how nice it is to volunteer, and then hung a poster up while the child did or did not donate. (c) The experimenter gave the child a leaflet which described how children who contribute would be able to take part in a lottery and possibly win prizes, and then waited while the child did or did not donate. and (d) The experimenter asked the child if he or she would donate and then continued to stand in front of the child while the child did or did not donate (Bar-Tel, 1976).

The findings support propositions that motives for helping develop with age and that altruism is a developmental achievement. Most of the younger children required concrete rewards and had compliance motives; more of the older children helped under the first two situations. The implications of the research do not suggest that all older children will help in the first situations; rather, they emphasize that younger children have not necessarily reached the required cognitive level, social perspective, and moral development to help out with altruistic internalized motives (Bar-Tel, 1976).

Conceptualization of altruism does seem to be linked with cognitive and moral development in humans. This assumption is supported further in an experiment conducted by Leahy (1980). Adults, six-year old children, and eleven-year old children were presented with information about situations in which an actor child either helped someone or gave someone something. The adults and children were then instructed to allocate rewards for the different child actors.

Younger children used an additive principle by allocating greater rewards for behavior which led to positive consequences or avoided negative consequences for the actor. Older children and adults utilized a discounting principle by allocating greater rewards for behavior which initially led to no reward or which occurred under threat of harm for the child actor. Younger and older children allocated greater rewards for altruistic behavior by the child actor following previous obligations to the recipient of the act; whereas, adults allocated greater rewards for behavior of the child actor toward a recipient who had previously denied a favor to the actor. Children and adults allocated greater rewards for actors whose previous behavior had been consistently altruistic and who were altruistic to persons other than the described recipient. These findings support developmental influences of altruistic motives by indicating that evaluation is based on various causal schemes for younger and older children and adults (Leahy, 1980).

Eisenberg-Berg (1979) conducted an experiment to examine the development of children's reasoning about prosocial moral dilemmas and to determine the relationship of the structure of prosocial moral judgement to story solution. One hundred and twenty-five elementary and high school students responded to four moral dilemmas involving prosocial conflicts. Elementary school children's reasoning tended to be hedonistic, stereotyped, approval-oriented, and interpersonally oriented, and tended to involve the labeling of other's needs. High school children, however, tended to have more empathic orientations and seemed to possess judgements reflecting internalized values. Empathic moral concerns comprised much of the older subject's moral reasoning (Eisenberg-Berg, 1979).

Individuals differ in their values and in their moral development, and these differences seem to be quite predictive of their prosocial behaviors. Developmental differences concerning donating, sharing, and competing were found for seven- and eleven-year olds. For both seven- and eleven-year olds, donating and sharing were positively correlated with each other and negatively correlated with competing. When sample statistics were computed separately for the two age groups, however, the relationship between donating and sharing for the seven-year olds was substantial and positive (Rushton & Weiner, 1975).

Wollman, Bachner, and Peterson (1980) found that older children had a greater tendency to take situational contingencies into account in predicting the behavior of others. When role taking, older children seemed to see norms as flexible and adaptable resources rather than inflexible absolutes as the younger children tended to view them. Older children in general seem to use available information to a much greater extent than do younger children.

Mental age level was less influential than maturity of moral judgements on manifestations of altruism in two investigations. Scores on moral judgement were positively correlated with altruism even after mental age was partialled out (Rubin & Schneider, 1973; Elmer & Rushton, 1974). Maturity of moral judgement was also supported by Harris, Mussen, and Rutherford (1978) in their experiment where moral maturity measures in boys in the fifth grade were significantly positively correlated with peer nominations of altruism, cooperation, helping, sharing, consideration of others, and defending victims of injustice.

Cultural Influences

Cultural influences are evidenced in research findings, and pervasive characteristics of certain cultures seem to be predictive of the existence and valuing of positive social behaviors. Studies demonstrate that children are likely to develop high levels of positive social behavior if they are raised in cultures characterized by (a) pressure to be considerate of others by parents, peers, and social agents, (b) simple social organizations of traditional or rural settings, (c) assignment of females to important economic functions, (d) extended family living, and (e) early assignment of tasks and reponsibility to children (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977)

Attempts to understand all of the motivators basic to compassionate cultures leaves researchers perplexed. The Siriano Indians and the Bushman of the Kalahari Desert both live in continual states of semi-starvation; however, the Siriano Indians tend to be selfish, dishonest, and seem unconcerned for others' welfare; whereas, the Bushmen are very concerned for the welfare of all members and have highly cooperative social arrangements for distribution of food (Staub, 1979).

It seems that values and norms do exert strong influence on behavior and contribute to the development of individual characteristics. These individual qualities, then, work jointly with social rules and cultural influence to affect positive social conduct (Staub, 1979).

Different subcultures within the same parent cultures also exhibit distinctive levels of positive social behaviors. Madsen (1971) conducted many studies in which children who were from rural backgrounds showed greater cooperation in playing games than did children from urban backgrounds. Mexican-American children were found to cooperate more often than Anglo-American (Kagan & Madsen, 1971; Knight & Kagan, 1977). In addition, Israeli kibbutz children cooperate with each other more than do Israeli children from other settings (Shapira & Madsen, 1969).

Innes and Gilroy (1980) suggested that Australians and British are more likely to accede to a request for help than are Americans. Also, compliance with a legitimate request is higher in all three of the countries when the appeal for help emphasizes the state of the victim as opposed to concentrating on the duty of the potential helper (Innes & Gilroy, 1980). Expressions of positive social behavior, then, differ in various cultures as well as within the cultures themselves.

Parent and Family Influences

Parental and family influences are paramount in a developing child's world. The child evolves through processes of identifying with parents and family members, as well as internalizing more and more values during his or her development. The socialization processes encompass two major areas of influence: (a) discipline techniques, and (b) relationship variables (Staub, 1979).

Discipline Techniques

Parents affect children's obedience through their use of discipline techniques. Their methods of discipline are diverse and result in distinctively different behavioral responses and attitudes from the children. Some examples of these possible approaches include induction or reasoning, power assertion, and love withdrawal.

Hoffman (1963) conducted extensive pioneering research concerning discipline techniques and children's expressions of prosocial behaviors. Seventh-grade students in Detroit nominated their peers for positions of classmate who was "more likely to defend a child who was made fun of by a group" or "most likely to care about another child's feelings."

Next, parent discipline data were collected by asking the seventh-grade students' parents to imagine four situations, e.g., their child delaying compliance with a parental request to do something. Parents were then instructed to designate their three most likely reactions to each situation, choosing from fourteen possible reactions on a list, e.g., spanking the child, explaining the consequences for the other person. The fourteen possible disciplinary practices fell into three main categories: (a) power assertion (control by physical power or material resources), (b) love withdrawal (ignoring, isolating), and (c) induction (explaining consequences).

The overall results of the study indicated that power assertive techniques are the least effective in facilitating children's development of consideration or positive social behavior expressed toward others. When female and male data were analyzed separately, confounding results were discovered. For females, parental use of power assertive techniques is associated with the lowest levels of consideration. For males, however, parental use of power assertiveness is associated with high levels of consideration nominated by peers. Hoffman reasoned that being observed helping others is not a dominant value for males; therefore, he believed the males were reacting according to their need for peer approval (Hoffman, 1963).

Research endeavors succeeding Hoffman have supported the association of induction discipline techniques for males and females with prosocial expressions (Bryant & Crockenberg, 1980; Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967), and provided evidence that parental control is important in the development of positive social behaviors in children (Hoffman, 1970; Maccoby, 1968). Parental discipline techniques provide important influence in the socialization processes; however, other variables also contribute significantly.

Relationship Variables

Relationship variables bound the quality of interaction between parents and their children. Parents can relate with their children in warm or cold, respectful or discounting manners. These interactions can often facilitate or hinder positive social responding (Staub, 1978; Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977; Bar-Tel, 1976).

Nurturant parent-child relationships lay the ground work in the development of positive social behavior in children and adults (Hoffman, 1970; Staub, 1971, 1975; Yarrow, Scott & Waxler, 1973). Parental nurturance probably contributes to prosocial development because parents' responding to children's signals of need serves to reduce their self-concern, create a positive affective orientation by the child toward other people, and increase identification with and imitation of their prosocial parents (Staub, 1975).

Isaacs (1973) suggested that affective (empathic) sensitivities to the feelings of others are related to prosocial behaviors. Children who feel what another is feeling are better able to judge when comfort is needed and to appropriate and anticipate the affective consequences of their behavior. Therefore, the aspects of parental behavior that relate to experiencing, awareness of, and expressing feelings, would also facilitate manifestations of empathy (Feshbach, 1975). Consequently, empathic expressions should be related to positive social behavior (Bryant & Crockenberg, 1980).

Research concerning parental influences on children's positive social behaviors has been emphasized in the literature; however, sibling influences have received little attention in developmental research. One study that investigated sibling influences found children who are responsible for caretaking in the family to be more helpful in general than children who had no such responsibility (Whiting & Whiting, 1975).

Very recently documentation of various ways in which siblings' interact with each other, the mother's treatment of siblings, and the relationship of this to prosocial behavior, has been accomplished. Bryant (1980) executed a study in which he compared 50 mothers' behaviors toward their oldest and youngest daughters, with the daughters' prosocial behavior toward each other. Relationships between each of the mothers' behaviors and their two daughters' behaviors were analyzed separately for the older and younger daughters. The relationships between prosocial and non-physical antisocial children's behaviors, and the relationships between the mothers' behaviors and their daughters' antisocial behaviors are also explored (Bryant, 1980).

Results indicated that mothers' responsiveness to their children's expressed needs was associated with low levels of sibling antisocial behavior and high levels of prosocial behaviors of the children. Other important results include: (a) Mothers' assertion of control and insensitivity toward their older children were associated with those older children's expressions of antisocial behavior toward their younger siblings. (b) The more mothers responded sensitively to their older children, the less discomforting and controlling those children were to their younger siblings. (c) Competitive statements by mothers and siblings correlated with siblings' antisocial behaviors. (d) Verbal antisocial behaviors were a function of the mothers' unresponsiveness and insensitivity in situations of stress and need rather than being related to negative behaviors modeled by the mothers. (e) Mothers' behaviors were the best predictors of sibling comforting, sharing, and discomforting. (f) Older sibling behaviors best predicted achievement, accepting help, and anger for the younger siblings (Bryant, 1980).

Rosenhan (1969) established that the most generous boys, in his study, much more frequently portrayed their fathers as nurturant and warm parents who were generous, sympathetic, and compassionate. It appears, then, that parental modeling, nurturance, warmth, awareness, and responsiveness to feelings, as well as use of induction discipline techniques, contribute to children's expressions of the enhancing and positive social behaviors (Bryant, 1980; Rosenhan, 1969; Feshbach, 1975; Hoffman, 1970; Staub, 1979; Yarrow, Scott & Waxler, 1973).

Situational and Personality Influences

Analyzing determinants of enhancing social behaviors and prosocial interactions is of great concern to researchers in the understanding, measurement, and prediction of these behaviors. Many questions are slowly being answered by the creative inquiries and arduous endeavors of recent investigators. Some of these critical questions include: What environmental conditions and personality characteristics facilitate or inhibit the liklihood to behave prosocially? What combinations of these qualities are predictive of positive social behaving? How do these conditions exert their influence (Staub, 1978, 1979). Situational and personality influences relating to these questions and others are elaborated upon.

Immediate Surroundings

Staub (1979) listed briefly a few influences of immediate surroundings on one's expressions of prosocial behaviors. He stated that (a) situations with the least amount of ambiguity will elicit the most helping expressions; (b) when an individual is very close to a potential recipient and when he or she is exposed to the recipient for long periods of time, she or he will help more because of the difficulty involved in removing oneself from the particular situation; and (c) if the direct costs to the potential helper are great, e.g., a person is drowning in dangerous rapids, then less help can be expected.

Feldman and Resmovic (1979) found that people helped more in environments where there is little movement of other people around them. In environmental settings where there was no movement, help occurred 82% of the time; if one-half of the population moved, help was enacted 67% of the time; and when all of the surrounding population was in movement, people helped only 38% of the time.

Spontaneous helping was discovered to be affected by surrounding conditions. This form of helping occurs continually in society and usually does not involve the person's contemplation of self-concern and costs. Rather, spontaneous helping demands fast, specific responses which seem to short circuit processes that evoke uncertainty, complex affective reactions, or decision-making. Behavior is, therefore, not controlled by reason; rather, responding seems to require four conditions: (a) the victim being visible and emitting clear cries for help, (b) the victim not being perceived as part of an experiment, (c) the potential helper being in a standing or moving position, and (d) the potential helper and victim having previously met (Piliavin, Piliavin, & Rodin, 1975; Staub, 1979).

Temporary States

Researchers have found that in general, children and adults tend to help more when they are in happy moods (Isen, Clark & Schwartz, 1976; Rosenhan, Underwood & Moore, 1974; Alderman, 1972; Underwood, Froming & Moore, 1977). Increases in altruism were found to be influenced by positive states such as elations and happiness including: (a) people who feel good as a result of succeeding at a task (Berkowitz & Connor, 1966; Isen, 1970), (b) thinking happy thoughts (Moore, Underwood ,& Rosenhan, 1973), (c) receiving unexpected gifts (Isen, Clark & Schwartz, 1976), or (d) finding money (Isen & Levin, 1972).

Cunningham, Steinberg and Grev (1980) stated that both induced positive moods, produced via the previous person in a phone booth leaving a dime, and guilt inductions, produced by telling the person he or she broke something, result in significant increases in helping. If the experimenter produced a positive mood and then guilt in succession for the same person, however, no increase in helping occurred. Cunningham, Steinberg and Grev concluded from this that positive mood and guilt may entail mutual inhibitory emotions.

In response to their hypothesis of mutual inhibitory emotions, the same researchers conducted a second experiment. Positive mood manipulations were found to produce increases in helping only to a request stressing the desirability of helping, while guilt manipulations were found to produce increases only to a request stressing obligations to help (Cunningham, Steinberg, & Grev, 1980).

The relationship between negative mood states and altruism is less clear. Caldini, Darby, and Vincent (1973) found that negative moods facilitated altruistic behavior. Moore, Underwood, and Rosenhan (1973), however, found that negative moods do not affect and may even inhibit prosocial behavior. Underwood, Froming, and Moore (1977) demonstrated a linear increase in donations as treatment to induce moods varied from sad to neutral to happy.

Proposing to reconcile the conflict of negative moods and their influence on helping, Thompson, Cowan, and Rosenhan (1980) executed their experiment. They hypothesized that the effect of negative moods on altruism depended critically on the individual's focus of attention. The investigators claimed that in studies where feeling bad is most consistently related to doing good, the subject's attention was directed toward the misfortunes of another; however, in those studies where negative affect fails to increase or actually decreases helping, the subject's attention was focused on him- or herself.

To test this, the experimenters manipulated the subject's focus of attention while the subjects were experiencing sadness. The subjects heard a tape in which they were requested to imagine a tragic personal situation and to (a) focus on their own emotions, or (b) focus on the emotions of the person directly affected by the tragedy (victim). A control group of subjects listened to a neutral tape (Thompson, Cowan & Rosenhan, 1980).

The results suggested those subjects who attended to the feelings of the victim to be considerably more altruistic than those who attended to their own emotions and reactions, as well as being more altruistic than the control subjects. These data helps reconcile past discordant data on the relationship of negative mood states to altruism. Increases in altruism of subjects with experimental induced negative affect requires manipulations that focus the subject's attention externally (Thompson, Cowan, & Rosenhan, 1980).

Temporary states in response to other types of experimental manipulations also affect prosocial behaving. This was evidenced in experiments (Staub, 1973; Staub & Noerenberg, 1978) where children's rationalizations in response to certain manipulations affected their donating. Children who played a bowling game received candy subsequent to the game, either as a reward for good performance or for reasons unrelated to their playing. Children who felt they deserved their rewards shared less than when they thought that their rewards were given to them for other reasons (Staub, 1973; Staub & Noerenberg, 1978).

Isen, Horn, and Rosenhan (1973) conducted a series of studies to assess the effects of previous failure and success experiences on helping

In their first experiment, they found that subjects' experience of success in a bowling game resulted in greater charitableness than for those who failed the bowling game, or control subjects. In a second experiment where the success and failure experiments were elaborated to emphasize the donation experience to a greater extent, they found that both success and failure children donated more than control children.

The experimenters hypothesized that failure children donated more because of image reparation; they were attempting to improve their image by contributing to charity. Their third experiment, which was conducted to test this hypothesis, demonstrated that children whose failure was observed donated significantly more than controls or those children whose failure was not observed (Isen, Horn, & Rosenhan, 1973).

Benson, Wright, and Riordan (1978) found that positive social feedback, given while subjects are helping, serves to increase their helping considerably more than does negative social feedback. This is demonstrated for both those subjects with low needs for approval and those subjects with high need for approval. The two types of feedback then seem to effect temporary states in subjects regardless of their approval needs.

Characteristics of the Recipient

Several characteristics of the potential recipient may affect whether he or she will receive help, regardless of other situational influences. Some of these include· (a) females are helped more than males; (b) individuals of the same race help each other more often; (c) older adults are helped more frequently; (d) individuals tend to help others who are more similar to them; (e) well-dressed people are helped more often; and (f) the more closely recipients are related to their potential helper, the more often they will be helped (Bar-Tel, 1976).

Modeling

Investigations of positive social behavior involving children have demonstrated that modeling and reinforcement of prosocial behavior does increase the children's prosocial expressions, such as helping, giving, and donating to anonymous others (Bryan & Walbeck, 1970; Grusec, Kuczynski, Rushton, & Simutis, 1978; Staub, 1971; Yarrow, Scott, & Waxler, 1973). Rushton (1975) stated that children who have observed a model performing prosocial acts become substantially more generous and helpful for long periods succeeding the modeling experience.

Grusec, Kuczynski, Rushton, and Simutis (1978) compared the effects of modeling, instructions, and attribution on donating. Sixty-three male and female children ranging from seven to ten years of age were to donate winnings from a game to charity after having seen a model donate or being instructed to donate. The children were subsequently (a) informed that they had donated because they must enjoy helping others (self-oriented), (b) informed that they had donated because they were expected to (externally-oriented), or (c) not given any reason for their donation.

More donations were given both immediately after and two weeks succeeding the experiment by children in the modeling group who were given the self-oriented attributions than those children in the modeling group who were given externally-oriented attributions. There were no significant effects for the instruction group. It seems then, that being exposed to a model of prosocial behavior and having any subsequent behavioral change attributed to self are the most facilitating processes influencing the expression of positive social behavior (Grusec, Kuczynski, Rushton, & Simutis, 1978).

Many researchers consider nurturant models to be more effective at inducing help in children than models who are not nurturant (Staub, 1971; Grusec, Kuczynski, Rushton, & Simutis, 1970; Rosenhan & White, 1967). Yarrow, Scott, and Waxler (1973) found that children who had been exposed to extended prosocial modeling from nurturant adults were more likely to express sympathy and help their mothers and baby sister or brother in the home setting than children not exposed to the nurturant modeling. They concluded the optional condition for the development of sympathetic helpful behavior to be one in which children observed adults manifesting altruism in principle and practice both toward children themselves and towards others in distress. Kipper and Yinon (1978) augment this by stating that modeling adults also need to reveal their honest intentions including their own personal conflicts encountered when expressing positive social behaviors toward others.

Little attention has been given to the use of effective models in the school system. No systematic investigations of teachers' modeling of positive social behaviors in the classroom setting have been completed (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977). Research on peer modeling, however, has demonstrated effectiveness of peers as models of prosocial behavior (Bandura, 1969; Bryan & Walbeck, 1970; Elliot & Vasta, 1970; Hartup & Coates, 1967; Liebert, Fernandez,& Gill, 1969).

Children seem to emulate what they observe their peers doing. Their emulations may include donating to charity, expressing sympathy, or helping someone in distress. It is clear, then, that peers can be powerful models in the modification of prosocial responses of children. Prosocial peer models may be expected to induce strong, generalized, and enduring prosocial dispostitions with repeated exposure in the same way that repeated exposure to adult prosocial models affects adult responding; however, this needs more empirical validation (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

Empathy

Humans capable of vicariously experiencing others' positive emotions will, at times, want to promote these same emotions in those individuals and will probably respond accordingly. Empathy, then, seems to be instrumental in motivating prosocial behaving (Staub, 1979).

Writers have postulated many reasons for the development of empathy. Some of these comprise empathy evolving from: (a) primitive emotional reactions present at an early age (Simner, 1971), (b) conditioning principles in living (Aronfreed, 1976) and (c) cognitive elaborations (Hoffman, 1975, 1976).

Hoffman (1976) believed that empathy is an involuntary response and suggested levels of its development in children. The emergence of a conception of self and others with separate identities and feelings extending beyond the immediate situation does not occur until late childhood. Prior to this, distress cues elicit only global empathic emotions and, as children develop, they gradually learn to differentiate their own emotions from those of others (Hoffman, 1976).

Investigations of empathic responding have been more frequently included in psychological journals during the last decade. Barnett, King, Howard, and Dino (1980) recently found that empathic levels of parents were related to their daughters' empathic scores, but unrelated to their sons' scores. Girls' empathy scores were significantly positively correlated with their mothers' empathy scores, but negatively correlated with their fathers' empathy scores. Analyses of variance revealed that the highest empathy scores for girls were associated with high empathic mothers and low empathic fathers. No relation was found between the boys' empathic scores and their various parent indexes.

Feshbach and Feshbach (1969) investigated the relationship between children's empathy and teachers' ratings of their aggressive behaviors. Empathy was measured using a technique developed by Feshbach and Roe (1968). Children were shown sequences of slides, each depicting something that happened to a child and the child's resulting emotions. Indexes of empathy were provided by the children's descriptions of how they felt immediately following a sequence of slides. These indexes were higher, the more frequently the child described feelings which were similar to those of the child observed in the slides.

A positive relationship between empathy and teachers' ratings of aggression was found for younger boys in the study; however, a negative correlation between empathy and ratings of aggression was found for the older boys. There was no relation between teachers' ratings of aggression and empathy for girls. Empathy scores for girls and boys were not substantially greater for older children than for younger ones (Feshbach & Feshbach, 1969).

Previous experiments have demonstrated the existence of verbal empathic responding in students as young as the preschool level (Hamilton, 1973; Buck, 1975). Eisenberg-Berg and Lennon (1980) used a revised form of Feshbach and Roe's (1968) empathy test in an experiment to assess the relationship of empathy and altruism in preschoolers.

Eisenberg-Berg and Lennon (1980) found that spontaneous prosocial behaving was negatively related to both verbal and nonverbal empathic scores, while prosocial behaving in response to a request was marginally positively related to nonverbal empathy scores. They concluded that empathy scores may not have actually reflected the preschooler's empathy, rather, these scores probably reflected the children's need to act in an approved manner and the children's ability to determine correct behavior. Wispe, Kiecolt, and Long (1977) supported this phenomenon in their findings that empathic responding by adults was strongly influenced by experimental demand characteristics.

Cognitive and affective processes of empathy seem to work together in motivating positive social behavior. Cognitive perspective taking (role taking) affects helping because it increases empathic emotional responding by humans. This increased empathic emotional responding in turn increases positive social behaving (Coke, Bateson, & McDavis, 1978).

The hypothesis of cognitive and affective processes being motivators of prosocial behavior was supported in research conducted by Coke, Bateson, & McDavis (1978). Subjects who cognitively took the victim's perspective, but who did not perceive the empathic emotions did not offer much help; however, those subjects who perceived the empathic emotions, helped considerably more. Empathy then may play a direct role by producing an altruistic desire to have the distress of others reduced (Coke, Bateson, & McDavis, 1978).

Personality

The personalities of humans actuate and affect their positive social expressions toward others. Individuals behave according to and in response to their perceptions and awareness of their surroundings and other humans (Bar-Tel, 1976; Staub, 1978). Humans will only help when they perceive another to need help. If an individual cherishes trust in others as a basic orientation, she or he will probably more often accept another's need as real than an individual who does not have this basic approach (Midlarsky, Bryan, & Brickman, 1973). Therefore, personalities are paramount in humans' expressions of enhancing social behaviors.

A person's well-being influences whether he or she will help. If an individual is dissatisfied with life, she or he will become self-occupied; this interferes with feelings of connectedness with others. Well-being and connection between oneself and others requires self-confidence (belief in one's own ability to influence events and bring about desired outcomes). Individuals who do possess these qualities (a) are aware of consequences of their own behavior, (b) possess behavioral skills necessary in positive human interactions, and (c) have developed the capacity to take initiative which might then involve expressing their many other diverse characteristics, e.g., independence, anticonformity, impulsiveness (Staub, 1978, 1970; Mussen, Rutherford, Harris, & Keasey, 1970; Midlarsky & Bryan, 1972).

Persons in a helping versus an achievement task experiment who were judged to be high prosocial behavers (measured by personality tests) tended to help others at the expense of their scores on an achievement-oriented task. Those subjects who were judged to be low prosocial behavers tended to choose continuing the achievement task over helping others (Feinberg, 1977).

Schwartz, Feldman, Brown, and Heingarter (1969) found personality correlates to helping. They gave subjects the opportunity to cheat in solving multiple choice vocabulary problems; they then placed the subjects in a situation that provided an opportunity to help another person. The helping task involved putting together a puzzle at the other person's request. Prior to these activities, three personality characteristics were measured: achievement, affiliation, and level of moral reasoning (Kohlberg, 1969). They established (a) the need for affiliation to be positively related to helping, (b) the need for achievement to be negatively related to helping, and (c) advanced moral reasoning to be positively related to helping and honesty.

Liebhart (1972) measured 11th through 13th grade subjects' prosocial motives or goals, using results from a projective test of "sympathetic orientation." Then he measured the subjects' dispositions to take instrumental action to relieve their own distress by way of a Likert-type scale devised by Liebhart (1972).

Liebhart (1972) found that subjects with a sympathetic orientation helped more quickly in response to sounds of distress if they were also disposed toward taking instrumental action. He implied then that action-oriented persons who possess goals for helping others tend to exhibit more positive social expressions.

A curvilinear relationship was found between amounts of donation and measures of adjustment in fourth-grade boys who earned prizes and could donate some of their earnings to others. The stingiest boys scored lower in personality tests of self-control, perseverance, and vigor; however the most generous boys showed more signs of maladjustment (emotional instability, proneness to guilt, and naivete) than those who moderately donated. The moderate donators were the best adjusted of the boys and seemed to consider both their own needs and the needs of others (Bond & Phillips, 1971).

Sarason (1972) showed that children who tended to be highly anxious helped significantly less when being evaluated by others than low or middle anxious children. He noted that the highly anxious children will not help as much in evaluated conditions as they will when they are not being evaluated. In a nonevaluative context, however, the highly anxious children helped significantly more than the middle anxious children did in that same context.

The emergence of intrapersonal factors as correlates of helping was further supported in a recent study by Benson, Dehority, and Garman (1980) who found three powerful predictors of helping behaviors. The predictors include: (a) internalized social responsibility norms, (b) intrinsic religious values, and (c) internal and perceived external control.

Pandey and Griffitt (1977) considered that the assessment of personality effects on altruistic behaviors is at least as important as the assessment of situational influences. In their experiment, they manipulated the dependency state of the recipient and the perceived number of additional potential helpers. In a high dependency situation, males and females with high and low nurturance needs were made to believe that the recipient was highly dependent upon them. In the other situation, the recipient did not appear dependent.

Results indicated that the subjects in the high dependent condition perceived the recipient as significantly more dependent on the assistance of others than did those in the low dependency condition. Also, those in the single potential-helper condition viewed the recipient as more dependent than did those in the multiple helper conditions. High nurturant-need subjects volunteered much more time to help than the low nurturant-need subjects; high nurturant-need subjects also volunteered more time in the high dependent condition than in the low dependent condition and volunteered more time in the single potential helper condition. Therefore, personality and situational interactions were demonstrated to influence positive social behaviors (Pandey & Griffitt, 1977).

Measurement and Prediction

Staub (1978) stated that if researchers could measure a network of prosocial cognitions related to personal prosocial goals, then activation of these goals could be predicted. Prior to any attempts at measurement of positive social behaviors, however, Staub believes that researchers should consider three prerequisite value orientations. Investigators should (a) have positive orientations toward other humans based on their own positive evaluations and feelings, (b) feel concern for the welfare of all humans, and (c) feel and accept responsibility for the welfare of other humans. These value orientations will serve to guide researchers in making decisions which would enhance human life rather than restrict life. Presently, researchers do not always adhere to the values prescribed. There are two major value orientations associated with prosocial research goals: (a) respecting the welfare of humans, and (b) maintaining societal rules, obligations, and religions (Staub, 1978).

When measuring positive social behaviors, Staub (1978) stated that researchers need to evaluate both the cognitive and emotional consequences of the conditions which activated the prosocial responses by the subject. Staub suggested that it is important to activate situations in relation to subjects' personal goals: if a person possesses goal A, then B behavior is activated.

Standardized methods for measuring positive social behavior, however, have not been successfully developed for general use. The present methods for assessing these behaviors include: (a) situational tests using controlled settings where behavior can be observed, (b) ratings to evaluate children's standing in a certain attribute, (c) sociometric questionnaires which provide information about children's reputation with their peers, and (d) naturalistic observations (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977). These approaches are quite limited when used alone; however some validity has been demonstrated (Staub, 1978, 1979; Krebs & Sturrup, 1974; Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977).

Bem and Allen (1974) stated that sometimes researchers have misconceptions regarding children's perceptions and intentions when they observe children behaving prosocially. It seems to be an unwarranted assumption by researchers that children's reactions to situational tests are actually indices of altruistic or compassionate intentions. The children's reactions instead may be reflecting their desirability for social acceptance or their strength of tendencies to conform. The research sample of children, therefore, must agree with the experimenter's perceptions to achieve validity of results (Bem & Allen, 1974).

Generality and consistency of prosocial responding then depend on the emphases of the particular orientations of experimental participants. Bem and Allen (1974) demonstrated that individuals are likely to behave more consistently in diverse situations with respect to traits that are highly salient for them. If the particular trait being measured is not important for the experimental participants, these participants tend to vary their behavior as the external circumstances change (Bem & Allen, 1974).

Consistency has been found when certain prosocial behaviors were summed and then correlated with the sum of another set of prosocial behaviors. Significant correlations have also been found when positive acts were correlated with teachers' and peers' ratings of children's positive behaviors (Rushton, 1976; Staub, 1979). Sums of positive acts, teachers' ratings, and peers' ratings are all indices of behavior across situations; to evaluate consistency of these behaviors, it is useful to examine relationships between averages of a large number of prosocial acts and ratings rather than limiting the research to one or a few of these indices, e.g., using only ratings. In particular, when using rating indices, investigators need to be aware that they may partially be representing a perception or evaluation of generalized positivity-negativity or some other global perception instead of measuring accurate predictions of the children's behaviors (Staub, 1979)

Staub (1971) found teachers' ratings to be biased in a correlational study. In this experiment, kindergarten children heard continued sounds of distress from an adjoining room, and their resulting helping expressions were observed. Teachers' ratings of the children were also acquired for: imitation of activity, need for approval, expression of positive affection, and competence.

Results indicated that teachers' ratings were highly related to one another; implications exist for a single dimension of judgement such as positivity-negativity being represented in the ratings. For boys, both ratings of imitation of activity and overall positive judgements by teachers were positively related to helping. Girls, however, who were judged overall negatively tended to help more; girls' need for approval ratings was significantly negatively correlated with helping. These results suggest teachers' bias in their ratings of the children. Teachers seemed to rate children on a single dimension such as positivity-negativity rather than rating each of the particular dimensions presented. In addition, it seemed that girls, who were rated negatively by their teachers, actually helped more than the other girls; this possibly suggests that assertiveness in girls is less accepted by teachers and therefore rated negatively. Results do suggest that tendencies toward being action-oriented contribute to helping (Staub, 1971).

Teachers' ratings were found to be predictive of their students' prosocial behaviors occuring one year later in a study by Block and Block (1973). Five-year olds were given an opportunity to share their earned prizes with other children who did not have time to finish the required task and therefore did not earn the prizes. Those children who responded generously had been described the previous year by their nursery-school teachers as generous, helpful, cooperative, empathic, responsible, and likewise. Children who chose not to share or to share less had previously been described as aggressive and unable to delay gratification. The results suggest that tendencies to prosocial actions may be consistent, general, and enduring (Block & Block, 1973).

Baumrind (1971) found evidence of consistency and stability of prosocial expressions in his longitudinal study. He established cross-situational consistency in social responsibility and altruism of nursery school boys and girls. Five or six years later, behaviors of these same children were observed and found to be positively correlated with the children's earlier behaviors.

Intercorrelations were established for three measures of prosocial behaviors, including peers' ratings. Scores on other-centeredness, peers' sociometric measures on kindness and consideration, and actual donations to charitable organizations were significantly intercorrelated for fifth-

and eighth-grade students (Dlugokinski & Firestone, 1974). Schwartz (1968, 1970) had also supported peer rating as significant correlates with positive social behaviors.

Self-report measures have been found to be consistent representations of behaviors. Bem and Allen (1974) established that people are capable of accurately reporting how consistent they are in categories of behavior such as conscientiousness and friendliness. The self-reports were significantly related to actual behavior (Bem & Allen, 1974).

Attitudes may need to be considered by researchers constructing self-report measures. Fazio and Zanna (1978) demonstrated a relationship between attitudes and behavior. Subjects who formed their attitudes through direct experience held those same attitudes more confidently and behaved more consistently with those attitudes than did subjects who formed their attitudes through indirect experience.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to provide information which would aid in the design of a more complete study and expose methodological problems.

Subjects

All of the one-hundred and sixteen fifth-and sixth-grade students at a university affiliated elementary and secondary school completed Self-Report Compassion Checklists and received teachers' ratings concerning their level of compassion. Parents' compassion checklists and rating scales were mailed to the one-hundred and sixteen children;fifty-seven checklists and fifty-five rating scales were returned completed, which results in approximately a 50% return. The school selects children in a systematic manner to assure a normal distribution of socioeconomic level, local geographic regions,parents' educational level, race, and sex.

Thirty-five of the one-hundred and sixteen students were randomly selected to participate in a compassion-stimulus situational experiment; three of the students did not participate because of absence. All children who participated were debriefed as to the intent of the experiment following the experiment. The thirty-five children who were selected completed peers' compassion checklists and rating scales for each other in groups of five; each child received four Peer Checklist scores and four rating scores.

Measurement Instruments

The Self-Report Compassion Checklist (see Appendix A) consists of twenty- seven items for which the children check only those items that describe behaviors in which they recall participating. The checklist includes a pseudo score assessing accuracy in responding to the checklist. The Parent Checklist (see Appendix A) is identical content-wise to the Self-Report Checklist; however the wording is changed in order to reflect parents' perceptions of their children's expressions of compassionate behaviors. The Peer Checklist (see Appendix A) is identical in content to the Parent and Self-Report Checklists with the exception of having three pseudo items ineffectual for them, removed (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

The rating scales for teachers, parents, and peers (see Appendix B) are constructed with identical content and the wording is adjusted appropriately for each of the three populations. The scales consist of five levels ranging from a non-compassionate description for level one, to a highly compassionate description for level five. The appropriate level describing the target child is to be checked (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

Procedure

Self-Report Compassion Checklists were administered to all children, and teachers completed rating scales for each child. Checklists and rating forms were mailed to parents who returned them by mail.

Thirty-five of the one-hundred and sixteen students were randomly selected from computer print-outs to participate in the compassion-stimulus experiment. The experiment was set up to measure students' responses to an upset confederate child in a non-evaluative situation . The first grade confederate child had been previously trained by the experimenter to appear sad and upset. The hypotheses are included in the results section.

Students were removed from their classrooms for thirty minute periods in groups of three each. The selected three students were taken to a play area where they remained until called into a conference room. Each student entered the conference room separately with the experimenter, while the others remained in the play area. Each student was in the conference room approximately ten minutes.

The experimenter informed the student prior to entering the conference room that he or she would be requested to answer a few questions but did not inform the student of the content. The experimenter also told the student that a younger child was waiting in the conference room to be picked up by her parents and that she seemed to be upset; however, the experimenter informed the student that the interview would be carried out as planned.

The experimenter entered the room with the student and sat at the table; she then introduced the confederate to the student and reminded the student that the confederate was waiting for her parents. The experimenter immediately presented a sheet to the student which contained various faces and the names of accompanying emotions (see Appendix C). The child was requested to select the emotion applicable to her or his immediate feelings. Following this, the child was asked the name of his or her favorite teacher as a filler question. The experimenter then told the student that she (the experimenter) needed to leave the room for a few minutes to check on a questionnaire sheet which they were to later complete. Succeeding this, the experimenter left the room.

The young (first grade) confederate child, sitting at the end of the conference room, continued to appear upset after the experimenter left. A concealed tape recorder recorded all verbal interactions between the two children. An independent observer behind a concealed window recorded all behavior emitted by the student.

After five minutes, the experimenter returned and reported that the questionnaire had not arrived; therefore they would not complete it until a later date. The experimenter once again presented the sheet with faces of emotions and requested that the child select the emotion applicable. The experimenter then informed the student that the experiment was over and proceeded to leave the room with the student. Once out of the conference room the experimenter asked the student two questions concerning: (a) the student's perceptions of the confederate child's emotional state and (b) the student's thoughts during the experiment concerning the confederate child's emotional state.

Peer Checklists and Rating Scales were administered to the thirty-five experimental student participants one week succeeding the experiment. Seven groups of the students were formed. Each group contained five randomly selected students. Each of the five students in each group completed Peer Checklists and Rating Scales for the four other students in his or her group.

Results

The results of this pilot investigation are presented by hypotheses. Statistical findings will be interpreted for each hypothesis.

Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hypothesis 1 states that the Compassion Self-Report Checklist, the Parent Checklist, and the Peer Checklist do not predict the students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment. Hypothesis 2 states that the Parent Compassion Rating Scale , the Teacher Compassion Rating Scale, and the Peer Compassion Rating Scale do not predict students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment.

Step-wise regression analysis including all checklists and rating scales indicated the Peer Checklist and the Parent Rating Scale to be significant predictors of students' situational responses (ignoring or avoiding the confederate, nonverbally responding to the confederate, verbally responding to the confederate, responding to help the confederate) in the non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment. The Peer Checklist scores accounted for 33% of the variance of students' reponses to the distressed confederate child in the compassion-stimulus experiment ($r^2 = .33$; $F(1,16) = 7.97$; $p = .01$); the Parent Rating Scale accounted for 21% of the variance of the students' responses ($r^2 = .21$; $F(1,16) = 6.74$; $p = .01$). The Peer Checklist and Parent Rating Scale combined accounted for 54% of the variance of students' responses ($r^2 = .54$; $F(2,15) = 8.79$; $p = .003$). None of the other variables contributed significantly. Computations of this analysis were completed for 18 of the 35 students because of the limited return of Parent Checklists and Parent Rating Scales for the situational experimental participants.

Hypothesis 3. All compassion checklists and rating scales are not correlated with one another.

Pearson's Product Moment correlations were computed for checklists and rating scale scores (see Table I). The Self-Report Compassion Checklist ($n = 116$) was significantly positively correlated with the Parent Checklist ($n = 59$), ($r = .274$, $p = .039$). The Parent Checklist was also significantly correlated with the Parent Rating Scale ($n = 55$), ($r = .511$, $p = .001$). The Parent Rating Scale correlated significantly with three other forms: (a) the Teacher Rating Scale ($n = 116$), ($r = .284$, $p = .036$), (b) the Peer Checklist ($n = 35$), ($r = .482$, $p = .03$), and (c) the Peer Rating Scale ($n = 35$), ($r = .505$, $p = .02$). The Peer Rating Scale also correlated highly significantly with the Peer Checklist ($r = .726$, $p = .001$), and significantly with the Teacher Rating Scale ($r = .501$, $p = .001$).

Hypothesis 4. The students' immediate emotions prior to the non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment, the students' emotional changes during the non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment, the students' cognitions regarding the emotionally distressed confederate, and the students' perceptions of the distressed confederate's emotional state do not predict the students' behavior in a non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment.

Step-wise regression analyses computed for the thirty-three experimental participants established the students' perceptions of the distressed confederate's emotional state to be a significant predictor of students' situational responses in the non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment ($r^2 = .21$; $F(1,31) = 8.13$; $p = .008$). Twenty-one percent of the students' responses can be predicted by knowing their

Table I

Pearson Product Moment Correlations for Checklists and Rating Scales

	Self-Report Check-list	Parent Check-list	Peer Check-list	Teacher Rating Scales	Peer Rating Scale	Parent Rating Scale
Self-Report Check-list		.274* p=.039	.121 p=.456	-.08 p=.372	-.03 p=.86	.184 p=.18
Parent Check-list	.274* p=.039		.507* p=.02	.05 p=.73	.212 p=.37	.511* p=.0001
Peer Check-list	.121 p=.456	.507* p=.02		.212 p=.19	.726* p=.001	.482* p=.03
Teacher Rating Scale	-.08 p=.372	.046 p=.73	.212 p=.189		.501* p=.001	.284* p=.036
Peer Rating Scale	-.03 p=.86	.221 p=.37	.726* p=.001	.501* p-.001		.505* p-.02
Parent Rating Scale	.184 p=.18	.511* p-.001	.482* p=.03	.284* p-.036	.505* p-.02	

Note: * = Significant correlation

perception of the confederate's condition. Students' immediate emotions, emotional changes, and cognitions about the confederate's emotions were not found to be significant predictors.

Combined predictive power. A multiple regression analysis was computed to assess the combined predictive power of the three significant predictors from the two previous step-wise analyses. The three variables included in this equation were (a) the Peer Checklist, (b) the Parent Rating Scale, and (c) students' perceptions of the confederate's condition. The total amount of variance, $r^2 = .61$, explained by the multiple regression equation, was significant, $F(3,14) = 7.2$, $p = .004$. The Peer Checklist and Parent Rating Scale accounted for 54% of the variance, with the remaining 7% being attributed to the students' perceptions. The students' perception variable, however, does not contribute significantly, ($p = .14$).

Additional data analyses. Frequency analyses were computed to provide descriptive data (a) for analyzing overall helping responses and (b) to augment previous multiple regression analyses assessing the power of students' perceptions, prior emotions, emotional changes, and cognitions to predict the students' behavioral responses in the compassion-stimulus experiment. These descriptive analyses are presented.

Students' ($n = 33$) overall responses to the emotionally distressed confederate were recorded. The results indicated that: (a) 37% of the students ignored or avoided the confederate child, (b) 21% of the students were attentive only non-verbally to the confederate, (c) 27% of the students verbally interacted without directly attempting to help, and (d) 15% of the students responded to help the confederate. An example of a student's response to help is described below:

> Do you have a problem maybe I can help you with?. . . .Well, you'll feel better if you talk about it. I have problems too. I always talk and feel better. . . .You'll feel better if you talk to me about it. . . .Does it have to do with, like, your hair? Just tell me what's the matter. Will you tell me what's the matter then I won't tell nobody. But just tell me what's the matter. Is it a problem at school?. . . .

Sixty-one percent of the 33 students perceived the confederate to be upset or sad: 55% of these students responded either non-verbally or verbally to the confederate, and 25% of these students responded to help the confederate. Nine percent of the students were not sure if the confederate was upset or sad: 67% of these students ignored or avoided the confederate and none responded verbally or helped the confederate. Thirty percent of the students perceived that the confederate was not upset; 80% of these students either ignored or avoided the confederate or they resonded non-verbally. Twenty percent of these students interacted verbally with the confederate; none responded to help. One hundred percent of those students who helped the confederate perceived the confederate to be sad or upset.

Most students (70%) experienced neutral (i.e.,bored) emotions prior to the experiment: 61% of these students ignored, avoided, or responded non-verbally; 26% responded verbally; and 13% responded to help the confederate. Twenty-seven percent of the students had positive (happy) emotions prior to the experiment: 22% of these students responded verbally and 22% responded to help. Only one student experienced a negative (sad) emotion prior to the experiment and he responded verbally. Sixty percent of those who helped had neutral emotions prior to the experiment; 40% felt happy preceding the experiment.

Sixty-four percent of the students had no emotonal change (e.g., happy before and after the experiment) during the experiment: 43% of these students avoided or ignored the confederate while only 5% helped. Twenty-seven percent of the students experienced a negative emotional change (e.g., happy before the experiment and sad succeeding the experiment): 33% of these students avoided or ignored the confederate and 33% responded to help the confederate. Only 9% of the students experienced a positive emotional change (e.g., sad prior to the experiment and happy after the experiment): none of these students ignored or avoided the confederate; however, the students were evenly distributed over other types of responding. Sixty percent of those students who helped the confederate experienced negative emotional changes during the experiment.

Seventy-six percent of the students responded neutrally (did not express concern nor negative statements about the distressed confederate child's condition) in their cognitions regarding their perceptions of the confederate's condition: 40% of these students ignored or avoided the confederate and only 4% responded to help. Twenty-one percent of the students expressed verbal concern regarding their perception of the confederate's condition: 57% of these students responded to help the confederate and only 15% of those students who responded at all did not help; however, 29% chose to avoid or ignore the confederate. Only one student expressed negative thoughts about the child. Eighty percent of those who responded to help expressed verbal concern for the confederate succeeding the experiment.

Conclusions and Discussion

Meaningful and consequential results were found in the present study. One of the most fundamental of these is the possible predictive power of the: Peer Checklist, Parent Rating Scale, and children's perceptions of the confederate's condition. These three variables can predict sixty-one percent of children's responses to a situational compassion stimulus. Even though the predictive power of the children's perception was not a significant contributor to the combined regression equation, this variable did increase the variance accounted for by seven percent. Perhaps a larger sample used for future regression analyses will increase the probability level to one of significance.

Many of the checklists and rating scales were not found to be predictors of situational behaviors; however, possible causes for this finding are the highly significant intercorrelations among these inventories. For example, the Peer Checklist correlated .726 with the Peer ting Scale , and the Parent Rating Scale correlated .505 with this same scale. Also, the Parent Rating Scale correlated .511 with the Parent Checklist.

The Teacher Rating Scale correlated significantly highly with only the Peer Rating Scale and only slightly with the Parent Rating Scale . The Teacher Rating Scale seems to be measuring, in general, something different from that emphasized in the other forms. Perhaps the Teacher Rating Scale is measuring the evaluated compassion expressions by the child whereas the other forms emphasize the unevaluated personal compassion responses. The research by Krebs and Sturrup (1974) may support this in that the validity supported for teachers' ratings seemed to be based on behaviors which were being evaluated or could have been evaluated according to the children's perceptions.

The Self-Report Checklist did not significantly correlate highly with any of the other checklists or rating scales, and correlated only slightly significantly (r = .274) with the Parents' Checklist. It appears that a child's recollection of his or her behavior is not sufficient to predict situational responses. This phenomenon may result from influences of children's intentions and motivations on situational compassionate or prosocial responding as was evidenced in the research review. For example, one child may help in order to receive social approval whereas another child may help because he or she would like the recipient to feel better. The Self-Report Checklist seems to need revisions which will incorporate children's intentions and/or motivations with behavioral compassionate expressions.

The overall experimental results indicated that only fifteen percent of the children actually responded to help out an upset child. The children who do help out tend to (a) perceive the distressed child as distressed or sad, (b) have neutral emotions prior to the experiment more often than negative or positive emotions, (c) have negative emotional changes during the situation of interacting with a distressed child, and (d) express verbal concern for the distressed person. Although these seem to be the tendencies of the child who helps out a younger distressed child, other conflicting variables exist, e.g., some children who express verbal concern for a distressed child do not respond to help them when the opportunity is presented. Perhaps some children feel compassionately for others, yet are inhibited to express this openly.

Several implications exist regarding the experimental results. If we can predict which children will respond compassionately to situations requesting this in their personal environments, perhaps these same children can be trained as models for their respective peers. It seems evident, via the predictive validity of Peer Checklists, that peers are accurately observing each other's behavioral responses. This might then facilitate more frequent compassion expressions in children.

The implications for the child's accurate perceptions of a distressed individual are also important; in fact, inaccurate perception may confound experimental reults. Perhaps the children's perceptions to the various experimental manipulations are quite different than those of the adult experimenter. This phenomenon may explain, at least in part, the conflicting results found in prosocial research. Children can be taught to become more aware of and to more accurately interpret other's emotions and behaviors. In addition, they may be taught how to react on their more accurate perceptions; this being important expecially for those children who can express concern verbally, yet are unable to express it behaviorally.

These approaches emphasizing compassionate responding are a refreshing change from much of the present emphasis on punishment and other negative behavior-control techniques. Thses endeavors can result in more enhancing conditions for the children, teachers, and parents.

Proposed changes for improved study. Subsequent research was to be based on a substantially larger sample of students as well as changes which were provoked from complications and suggestions resulting from the pilot investigation. A major modification referred to earlier in this section comprised a revision of the Self-Report Checklist to incorporate intentions and/or motivations. Other alterations include: (a) follow-up requests and phone calls were sent ot parents to eventuate greater return of Parent Rating Scales and Checklists. (b) students selected to participate in the compassion-stimulus experiment were randomly chosen from those students whose parents have returned rating sheets and checklists to assure that all data were available on the research participants. (c) Peer Rating Scales and Peer Checklists were completed individually rather than in groups of five to avoid possible response bias of students. (d) Video and audio recordings were accomplished to account for the students' and distressed child's interactions during the compassion-stimulus experiment to affect less expermenter bias. (e) ANOVA statistics were computed to assess differences in compassonate responding and measurement scores for : males and females, grade level, teachers,and confederates. (f) The rating scale for compassionate behavior in the experiment was changed from: avoid/ignore, nonverbal, verbal, verbal concern, to avoid/ignore,nonverbal - no concern, verbal - no concern, nonverbal - concern, and verbal - concern. The confederate child did not act upset until the experimenter left her alone in the room with the student, to avoid bias associated with the experimenter's reactions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purposes of this study are: (a) to examine the power of check lists and rating scales to predict non-evaluative situational compassionate behaving in response to a compassion-stimulus: (b) to examine possible intercorrelations among checklists and rating scales; and (c) to examine the power of immediate emotions, emotional changes, cognitions, and perceptions, while the person was being subjected to a compassion-stimulus in order to predict expressions of non-evaluated situational compassionate behaving. This chapter presents the research methods that will be used in the investigation. The chapter is organized to include the following: (a) subjects; (b) research design; (c) procedure; (d) measurement instruments; and (e) data analyses.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students at P. K. Yonge, a university-affiliated elementary and secondary school. Sixty fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students were randomly selected to participate in the study. The school selects children in a systematic manner with regard to their socioeconomic levels, local geographic regions, parents' educational level, race, and sex.

Research Design

The study used a multivariate ex post facto design (see Figure 1). All variables analyzed are dependent variables which are not experimentally manipulated. The design is, therefore, based on ex post facto data. The multivariate design allows for the use of statistical procedures which accomplish powerful control of variance and which estimate the magnitudes of various sources of influence (A-J= checklists, rating

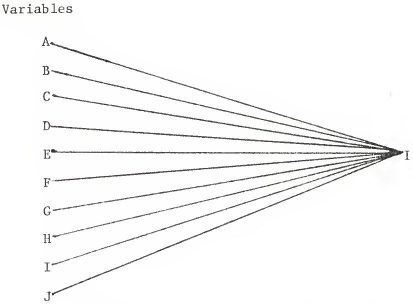

Figure 1: Multivariate Ex Post Facto Design

scales, emotions, perceptions, and cognitions) on a variable "I", as well as allowing for analyses of interrelationships of all the variables (Kerlinger, 1964).

Procedure

Parent checklists and rating scales were mailed to parents of all fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students. Follow-up notes were mailed to assure high return. Sixty of those fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students whose parents had returned checklists and rating scales were randomly assigned to participate in the Compassion-Stimulus experiment. The experiment was set up to measure students' responses to a younger distressed child who would serve as an upset confederate in a non-evaluative situation. Four second-grade confederate children were trained by the experimenter to appear sad and upset. These children randomly alternated serving as the confederate.

Revised self-report compassion checklists were administered to the sixty students. The teachers for these students completed rating scales for each of the students.

Compassion-Stimulus Experiment

Each of the sixty students were removed from his or her classroom individually for a period of one-half hour. After removing a student from his or her classroom, the experimenter informed the student that he or she would enter a conference room with the experimenter and (a) he or she would be requested to answer a few questions and fill out forms about compassionate behaviors for a few of his or her classmates; (b) a younger child would be waiting in the conference room to see her guidance counselor, yet the interview would be carried out as planned even though the young child would be waiting.

The experimenter then entered the conference room with the student. The confederate child was sitting at the end of the conference table. The experimenter sat down with the student in such a way that the student was sitting across from the confederate. The experimenter then introduced the confederate to the student and reminded the student that the confederate was waiting for her guidance counselor.

Following this, the experimenter immediately presented a sheet to the student which contained various faces and the names of the accompanying emotions (see Appendix C). The student was requested to select the emotion applicable to her or his feelings. The student was then asked to name his or her favorite teacher, as a filler question. Next, the experimenter told the student that the experimenter needed to leave the room to get the forms that the student would later complete for his or her classmates. The experimenter then left the room.

The young (first- or second-grade) confederate child then began appearing sad and upset. A concealed audio-visual recorder recorded all verbal interactions and visual behavior emitted by the student and confederate.

After five minutes, the experimenter returned with the peer checklist and rating sheets. The experimenter immediately presented the sheet with faces of emotions again and requested that the student select the emotion applicable.

The experimenter, at this time, informed the student that it was time to complete the forms about the compassionate behavior of her or his classmates. After this, the experimenter informed the confederate that her guidance counselor was ready to see her and told the student to wait while she took the confederate to meet her guidance counselor. The experimenter and the confederate then left the room. The experimenter returned to the conference room within a few seconds of leaving.

When the experimenter returned to the conference room where the student was sitting, the experimenter asked the student the following questions in succession: (a) How do you think the child felt? (b) Can you tell me some more about how you think the child felt? (c) What are some things you were thinking about the child while you were in the room with her? (d) Can you tell me some more of the things you were thinking about how she felt?

Succeeding this, the experimenter gave the student four checklists and four rating scales for him or her to complete on four classmates. The names of the classmates were randomly selected from the other fifty-nine students participating in the experiment. The experimenter then told the student that he or she could leave after the forms were completed and the experimenter thanked the student for helping out in the experiment. The experimenter then left the room.

Measurement Instruments

The revised self-report compassion checklist (see Appendix A) comprises all statements included in the unrevised Self-Report Checklist. Each statement, however, was altered to become the stem of two new statements, which were constructed by using the original statement as a stem, and adding two endings to the same stem. One of the two endings expresses a reciprocity intention for the particular behavior described in the stem (see item #1 on the Revised Self-Report Checklist in Appendix A); the other ending expresses an altruistic intention for the particular behavior described in the stem (see item #30 in the Revised Self-Report Checklist in Appendix A). All of the newly constructed statements, including reciprocity or altruistic endings, were randomly assigned an order in the development of the Revised Self-Report Compassion Checklist.

A scoring key has been constructed for the unrevised Self-Report Checklist using independently derived ratings for each statement based on the statement's level of expressed compassion (see Appendix D). Four independent raters assigned each statement a rating which ranged from one to five. A rating of one indicated the lowest level of compassion while a rating of five indicated the highest. The individual statement ratings were added for the total score of the unrevised checklist. The checklist also includes a pseudo score assessing accuracy in responding to the checklist. Checklists with total pseudo scores of six or over are considered inaccurate and were not used in group statistical computations (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

The revised checklist total score (see Appendix D) is based on the same procedure as the unrevised checklist. Each of the stems with altruistic endings receives the appropriate rating previously assigned and a total rating score is computed. An altruistic/reciprocity ratio is also calculated for each completed self-report checklist. This is accomplished by (a) counting the frequency of both altruistic endings and reciprocity endings which have been checked; and (b) dividing the total number of altruistic endings checked by the total number of reciprocity endings checked. This ratio can range from .04 (all reciprocity endings checked only) to 27 (all altruistic endings checked only). Next, the total rating score is multiplied by the altruistic/reciprocity ratio to compute the final score given for the revised self-report compassion checklist.

Scoring keys have also been constructed for parent and peer checklists (see Appendix D). Scoring for these two checklists is identical to the procedure used for the unrevised self-report checklist. The parent and peer checklists are identical content-wise to the unrevised self-report checklist; however, the wording is changed in order to reflect the parents' and peers' perceptions of the students' expression of compassionate behaviors (Landman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

The ratings scales for teachers, parents, and peers (see Appendix B) are constructed with identical content and the wording is adjusted appropriately for each of the three populations. The scales consist of five levels ranging from non-compassionate description for level one to a highly compassionate description for level five. The appropriate level describing the target student is to be checked (Landsman & Clawson-Marsh, 1981).

Data Analyses

Data Collection

Total scores were computed for revised self-report compassion checklists, parent compassion checklists, and peer compassion checklists.

Teachers', parents', and peers' rating scores were recorded.

Independent judges assigned each student's verbalizations and behaviors toward the distressed confederate, from the audio and visual recordings, to one of five categories: (a) the student either avoids any contact with or ignores the distressed confederate; (b) the student responds non-verbally without looking concerned; (c) the student verbally interacts with the confederate, but makes no effort to discuss the confederate's problem or to help the confederate in any other way; (d) the student responds non-verbally and appears concerned for the confederate; or (e) the student interacts with the confederate by discussing the confederate's problem or by attempting to help the confederate feel better in some other way.

Data for the student's perceptions, immediate emotions, emotional changes, and the cognitions were also organized from their answers to the experimenter's questions. The student's verbalizations of his or her perceptions of the distressed confederate's feelings and emotional state were reduced into one of three categories: (a) the student perceived the confederate to be sad or upset; (b) the student wasn't sure if the confederate was sad or upset; or (c) the student perceived that the confederate was not upset. Data for the student's immediate emotions prior to the compassion-stimulus experiment were systematized from their responses to the emotion sheet. The student's immediate emotions were classified into one of three categories: (a) positive (happy); (b) neutral (bored , OK); or (c) negative (sad). Data for the student's emotional changes during the experiment were organized from their responses to the emotion sheet into one of three categories: (a) positive emotional change, e.g., change from being sad to OK or happy;

(b) neutral or no emotional change, e.g., no change or change from being bored to OK or vice versa; or (c) negative emotional change, e.g., change from being happy to OK or sad. Data for the students' cognitions regarding their perceptions of the confederate's feelings were organized into one of three categories: (a) cognitions expressing verbal concern for the confederate's emotional state, (b) cognitions in which no concern is expressed but no negative statements are expressed about the distressed confederate child's condition, or (c) negative cognitions are expressed about the distressed confederate child's condition.

Statistical Analyses

Statistical treatment of the hypotheses will follow:

Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hypothesis 1 states that the compassion self-report checklist, the parent checklist, and the peer checklist do not predict student's behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment. Hypothesis 2 states that the parent compassion rating scale, the teacher compassion rating scale, and the peer compassion rating scale do not predict students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment.

To test for the power of all six checklists and rating scales combined to predict the behavioral variable, a step-wise regression analysis was used. Multiple regression alalysis was used because it is a refined and powerful method of controlling variance and will furnish tests of statistical significance of (a) combined influence of the six instrumental measurements on the behavioral variable, and (b) the separate influences of each of the instrumental measurements on the behavioral variable. Multiple regression analysis is considered to be an efficient and powerful hypothesis testing and inference-making technique since it helps researchers study complex interactions between variables. The variables used in the analysis can be continuous or categorical (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 631).

Step-wise regression analysis was selected to be used because of its appropriateness of entering the instrumental variables one by one. The use of this procedure is considered to be advantageous when the researcher wants to isolate a subset of available predictor variables that will yield an optimal equation with as few terms as possible. The computer entered variables in single steps from best to worst provided that they meet the statistical cirteria. Variables which did not meet the statistical criteria were not entered into the equation. The instrumental variable that explained the largest amount of variance in the behavioral variable was entered first, then the instrumental variable that explains the greatest amount of variance, unexplained by the instrumental variable already in question, entered the equation. This procedure continued until all the variables which met the statistical criteria were entered step by step (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975).

Hypothesis 3. The compassion checklists and rating scales are not correlated with one another.

To test this hypothesis, the Pearson Product Moment correlation test was the method used. The Pearson Product Moment correlation indicates the goodness of fit of the linear regression as well as measuring the association indicating the strength of the linear relationships between variables. The coefficient gives the strength and direction of a linear relationship. The square of the coefficient is a measure of the proportion of variance in one variable explained by the other (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, & Bent, 1975).

Hypothesis 4. Students' immediate emotions prior to the non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment, students' emotional changes during the non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment, students' cognitions regarding the emotionally distressed confederate, and students' perceptions of the distressed confederate's emotional state do not predict students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment.

To test for the power of these four variables to predict the behavioral variable, a step-wise regression analysis was used. The rationale for the decision is identical to that described for hypotheses 1 and 2.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of this study are presented by hypotheses. Statistical findings will be interpreted for each hypothesis.

Hypotheses 1 and 2. Hypothesis 1 states that the Compassion Self-Report Checklist, the Parent Checklist, and the Peer Checklist do not predict the students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment. Hypothesis 2 states that the Parent Compassion Rating Scale, the Teacher Compassion Rating Scale and the Peer Compassion Rating Scale do not predict students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment.

A step-wise regression analysis was completed using the following variables: Self-Report Checklist, Peer Checklist, Parent Checklist, Teacher Rating Scale, Peer Rating Scale and Parent Rating Scale. Step-wise regression analysis indicated all six of the measurement indices to be significant predictors of the students' situational responses (ignoring or avoiding the confederate, non-verbally responding without concern to the confederate, verbally responding without concern to the confederate, non-verbally responding with concern to the confederate, responding with verbal concern to the confederate) in the non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment. The checklists and rating scales combined accounted for 20.3% of the variance of students' responses ($r^2 = .203$; $F(6,53) = 2.24$; $p < .05$). The Peer Checklist accounted for most of the variance ($r^2 = .132$; $F(1,58) = 8.78$; $p < .01$) with the remaining measurement indices following in the succeeding sequence: Peer Rating Scale ($r^2 = .171$; $F(2,57) = 5.87$; $p < .01$), Parent Checklist ($r^2 = .189$; $F(3,56) = 4.34$; $p < .01$), Self-Report Checklist ($r^2 = .2$; $F(4,55) = 3.37$; $p < .05$), Teacher Rating Scale ($r^2 = .202$; $F(5,54) = 2.74$; $p < .05$), and Parent Rating Scale ($r^2 = .203$; $F(6,53) = 2.24$; $p < .05$).

Additional step-wise regression analysis. A step-wise regression analysis was also performed using the: Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale, Altruistic/Reciprocity (A/R) Scale, and Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale, along with the checklists and rating scales. This step-wise regression analysis indicated the: Peer Checklist, Peer Rating Scale, Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale, Self-Report Checklist, A/R ratio, Parent Checklist, and Teacher Rating Scale to be significant predictors of the students' situational responses in the compassion-stimulus experiment; the analysis also indicated the indices to account for 26% of the variance of students' responses ($r^2 = .26$; $F(7,52) = 2.6$; $p < .05$). The Peer Checklist, again, accounted for most of the variance ($r^2 = .132$; $F(1,58) = 8.78$; $p < .01$) with the remaining indices following in the succeeding sequence: Peer Rating Scale ($r^2 = .171$; $F(2,57) = 5.87$; $p < .01$), Self-Report Pseudo Scale ($r^2 = .19$; $F(3,56) = 4.4$; $p < .01$), Self-Report Checklist ($r^2 = .21$; $F(4,55) = 3.6$; $p < .02$), A/R Ratio ($r^2 = .23$; $F(5,54) = 3.3$; $p < .02$), Parent Checklist ($r^2 = .25$; $F(6,53) = 2.9$; $p < .03$), and Teacher Rating Scale ($r^2 = .26$; $F(7,52) = 2.6$; $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3. The compassion checklists and rating scales are not correlated with one another.

Pearson's Product Moment correlations were computed for checklists and rating scale scores (see Table II). The (Revised) Self-Report Checklist was significantly correlated with the Peer Checklist ($r = .22$, $p = .05$), and the Peer Rating Scale ($r = .27$, $p = .02$), and approached significance with the Parent Rating Scale ($r = .24$, $p = .07$). The Parent

TABLE II

Pearson Product Moment Correlations
For Checklists and Rating Scales

	Self-Report Check-list	Parent Check-list	Peer Check-list	Teacher Rating Scale	Peer Rating Scale	Parent Rating Scale
Self-Report Checklist		.11 p=.2	.22* p=.05	-.002 p=.5	.27* p=.02	.24 p=.07
Parent Checklist	.11 p=.2		.27* p=.02	-.01 p=.5	.15 p=.13	.43* p=.002
Peer Checklist	.22* p=.05	.27* p=.02		.37* p=.01	.44* p=.001	.1 p=.3
Teacher Rating Scale	-.002 p=.5	-.01 p=.5	.37* p=.01		-.02 p=.46	.16 p=.3
Peer Rating Scale	.27* p=.02	.15 p=.13	.44* p=.001	-.02 p=.46		-.13 p=.21
Parent Rating Scale	.24 p=.07	.43* p=.002	.10 p=.3	.16 p=.3	-.13 p=.21	

NOTE: * = significant correlation

Checklist was significantly correlated with the Peer Checklist (r = .27, p = .02) and highly correlated with the Parent Rating Scale (r = .43, p = .002). The Peer Checklist was also significantly correlated with the Peer Rating Scale (r = .44, p = .001) and with the Teacher Rating Scale (r = .37, p = .01).

Additional correlations. Correlations were computed for checklists and rating scales with the Self Report Checklist Pseudo Scores, Parent Checklist Pseudo Scores, Altruistic/Reciprocity (A/R) Ratios, and Compassion Behavior Ratings in the Non-Evaluation Compassion-Stimulus Experiment. The Pseudo Scores, A/R Ratios, and Compassion Behavior Ratings were also correlated with one another (see Table III).

The Self-Report Checklist (r = .23, p = .04), Parent Checklist (r = .26, p = .02), Peer Checklist (r = .36, p = .002), Peer Rating Scale (r = .33, p = .005), and A/R Ratio (r = .21, p = .05) correlate positively and significantly with the Compassion Behavior Ratings in the experiment. The Self-Report Checklist (r = -.29, p = .01), Parent Checklist (r = -.34, p = .005) and Peer Rating Scale (r = -.29, p = .02) correlate negatively and significantly with the Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale. The Parent Checklist (r = -.36, p = .002), Peer Checklist (r = -.22, p = .05), and Parent Rating Scale (r = -.25, p = .06) correlate negatively and significantly or near significantly with the Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale. Yet, the Teacher Rating Scale correlates positively and significantly with the Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale (r = .27, p = .05). The Self-Report Pseudo Scale and the Parent Pseudo Scale are positively correlated although the p = .05 criteria was not quite reached (r = .20, p = .07). The A/R ratio was very highly correlated (r = .87, $p < .001$) with the Self-Report Checklist, and positively correlated with

TABLE III

Pearson Product Moment Correlations for Pseudo Scores, Compassion Behavior Ratings, and Altruistic/Reciprocity Ratios

	Self-Report Pseudo Score	Parent Pseudo Score	A/R Ratio	Compassion Behavior Rating
Self-Report Checklist	-.29* p=.01	-.3 p=.2	.87* p=.000	.23* p=.04
Parent Checklist	-.34* p=.005	-.36* p=.003	.03 p=.4	.26* p=.02
Peer Checklist	-.14 p=.15	-.22* p=.05	.20 p=.06	.36* p=.002
Teacher Rating Scale	.18 p=.15	.27* p=.05	.07 p=.4	.005 p=.5
Peer Rating Scale	-.29* p=.02	-.16 p=.109	.26* p=.03	.33* p=.005
Parent Rating Scale	-.04 p=.4	-.25 p=.06	.18 p=.13	.13 p=.2
Self-Report Pseudo Score		.2 p=.07	-.10 p=.2	-.06 p=.4
Parent Pseudo Score	.20 p=.07		.002 p=.5	-.13 p=.17
Compassion Behavior Rating	-.03 p=.41	-.13 p=.17	.21* p=.05	

NOTE: * = significant correlation

the Peer Rating Scale ($r = .26$, $p = .03$), and Compassion Behavior Rating ($r = .21$, $p = .05$). The A/R Ratio correlates positively with the Peer Checklist at just below the .05 level of significance ($r = .20$, $p = .06$).

Hypothesis 4. The students' immediate emotions prior to the non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment, the students' emotional changes during the non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment, the students' cognitions regarding the emotionally distressed confederate, and the students' perceptions of the distressed confederate's emotional state do not predict the students' behavior in a non-evaluative compassion-stimulus experiment.

Step-wise regression analysis was computed for the sixty experimental participants. The students' cognitions regarding the distressed confederate's emotional state were found to be a significant predictor of students' situational responses in the non-evaluated compassion-stimulus experiment ($r^2 = .07$, $F = 4,3$, $p < .05$); 7% of the students' responses can be predicted by knowing their cognitions (concern, no concern, negative reaction) regarding their perception of the confederate's condition. Students' immediate emotions, emotional changes, and perceptions were not found to be significant predictors.

ANOVA statistics. Analyses of variance were computed for: sex of students (M, F), grade of students (4, 5, 6), students' teachers (numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, 5), and confederates (numbered 1, 2, 3, 4), by: students' perception, Self-Report Checklist Score, Peer Checklist Score, Peer Rating Scale Score, Teacher Rating Scale Score, Parent Checklist Score, Parent Rating Scale Score, and Students' Compassion Behavior Rating. These analyses were performed to assess possible differences of scores on these measurement indices for sex, grade level, teachers, and confederates. Only the significant or nearly significant results will be described.

Differences in Students' Compassion Behavior Rating by sex approached significance (see Table IV). The mean scores for sex (M = 1, F = 2) for each of the Compassion Behavior Ratings (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) are:

Behavior Ratings:	1	2	3	4	5
Sex Mean Scores:	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.6

The trend seems to indicate that males were more often given a Compassion Behavior Rating of 1, while females were more often given a compassion rating of 4; males and females were given ratings of 2, 3, and 5, approximately as often.

Grade levels (4, 5, 6) by Teacher Rating Scale Scores (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) were found to be significantly different at the p = .02 level (see Table V). The mean scores for grade levels for each of the Teacher Rating Scale Scores are:

Teacher's Ratings:	1	2	3	4	5
Grade Mean Score:	6	6	5.2	5	4

It appears that only the sixth-grade students were given ratings of 1 and 2 by their teachers, and only fourth-grade students were given ratings of 5 by their teachers; ratings of 3 and 4 seem to be evenly distributed among the grades.

Differences in teacher (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) by Teacher Rating Scale Scores (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) were found to be significant at the p = .03 level (see Table VI). The mean scores for teachers for each of the Teacher Rating Scale Scores are:

Teachers' Ratings:	1	2	3	4	5
Teacher Mean Scores:	5	5	3.5	3.5	2

TABLE IV

ANOVA
Sex by Students' Compassion Behavior Ratings

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	1.982	4	0.495	2.162	0.085 *
Explained	1.982	4	0.495	2.162	0.085 *
Residual	12.602	55	0.229		
Total	14.583	59	0.247		

Note * = Significant

TABLE V

ANOVA
Grade Level by Teacher Rating Scales Scores

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	6.247	4	1.562	3.239	0.024 *
Explained	6.247	4	1.562	3.239	0.024 *
Residual	15.428	32	0.482		
Total	21.676	36	0.602		

Note * = Significant

TABLE VI

ANOVA
Teacher by Teacher Rating Scale Scores

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	15.455	4	3.864	3.133	0.028 *
Explained	15.455	4	3.864	3.133	0.028 *
Residual	39.464	32	1.233		
Total	54.919	36	1.526		

Note: * = Significant

This seems to indicate that only teacher number 5 gave rating scores of 1 and 2; whereas a rating of 5 was probably given by teachers 1, 2, and possibly 3. Ratings of 3 and 4 appear to be evenly distributed among the teachers, but were probably given more often by middle numbered teachers.

Significant differences (p = .02; see Table VII) were found for confederates (numbered 1, 2, 3, 4) by students' perceptions (1 = sad, 2 = unsure, 3 = not sad). The mean scores for confederates for each of the students' perceptions are:

Students' Perceptions:	sad	unsure	not sad
Confederate Means:	2.5	1.9	1.5

It appears, then, that the higher numbered confederates tended to be perceived as sad more often.

Differences between confederates (numbered 1, 2, 3, 4) as measured by Peer Rating Scale Scores (1 - 5) were found to be significant at the p = .02 level (see Table VIII). The mean scores for confederates for each of the Peer Rating Scale Scores are:

Peer Ratings:	1	2	3	4	5
Confederate Means:	2.0	1.4	2.6	2.2	2.0

It seems that, overall, the confederates who were assigned higher numbers were with students who had higher peer ratings. Students with peer ratings of 1 and 5, however, were possibly distributed evenly among the confederates.

Significant differences at the p = .02 level (see Table IX) were found for confederates (1, 2, 3, 4) by Students' Compassion Behavior Ratings (1, 2, 3, 4, 5). The mean scores for confederates for each of the Students' Compassion Behavior Ratings are:

TABLE VII

ANOVA
Confederate by Students' Perceptions

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	9.517	2	4.759	4.194	0.020 *
Explained	9.517	2	4.759	4.194	0.020 *
Residual	64.666	57	1.134		
Total	74.183	59	1.257		

Note * = Significant

TABLE VIII

ANOVA
Confederate by Peer Rating Scale Scores

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	12.963	4	3.241	3.143	0.022 *
Explained	12.963	4	3.241	3.143	0.022 *
Residual	54.640	53	1.031		
Total	67.603	57	1.186		

Note * = Significant

TABLE IX

ANOVA
Confederate by Students' Compassion Behavior Ratings

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	14.739	4	3.685	3.409	0.015 *
Explained	14.739	4	3.685	3.409	0.015 *
Residual	59.444	55	1.081		
Total	74.183	59	1.257		

Note * = Significant

Behavior Ratings:	1	2	3	4	5
Confederate Means:	2.2	1.7	2.0	2.6	3.1

Students who were with confederates assigned higher numbers, tended to be receiving higher Compassion Behavior Ratings. Ratings of 2 were more often given to students who were with the confederates who were assigned lower numbers, whereas ratings of 5 were more often given to students who were with the confederates who were assigned higher numbers.

Descriptive data analyses. Frequency analyses were computed to provide descriptive data (a) for analyzing overall helping responses; and (b) to augment previous multiple regression analyses assessing the power of students' prior emotions, emotional changes, perceptions, and cognition to predict the students' behavioral responses in the compassion-stimulus experiment. These descriptive analyses are presented.

Students' (n = 60) overall responses to the emotionally distressed confederate indicated that: (a) 26.7% of the students ignored or avoided the confederate child; (b) 33.3% of the students were attentive non-verbally without demonstrating concern; (c) 3.3% of the students verbally interacted without directly attempting to help; (d) 25% of the students responded non-verbally with demonstrated concern to the confederate; and (e) 11.7% of the students responded with verbal concern to the confederate. Examples of verbally concerned responses might include (a) asking the confederate why she is feeling sad, or (b) hugging the confederate and telling her things will be all right.

Thirty-two percent of the students expressed cognitions indicating concern regarding their perception of the confederate's condition: 58% of these students responded behaviorally with either nonverbal or verbal concern, 32% actually responded with verbal concern, and 21% of these students responded to avoid or ignore the confederate. Sixty-seven percent of the students expressed neutral cognitions (did not express concern nor negative statements about the distressed confederate child's condition) regarding their perceptions of the confederate's condition: 68% of these students responded to ignore/avoid the confederate or responded nonverbally with no demonstration of concern; only 2.5% of these students responded with verbal concern to the confederate; however, 30% responded with nonverbal concern. Only one student expressed negative cognitions toward the confederate and he verbally interacted without demonstrating concern.

Fifty-eight percent of the students perceived the confederate to be upset or sad: 46% of these students expressed nonverbal or verbal concern; only 15% expressed verbal concern to the confederate. Seventeen percent were not sure if the confederate was upset or sad: none of these students expressed verbal concern and only 20% expressed nonverbal concern toward the confederate; 70% either avoided the confederate or responded nonverbally without any expression of concern. Twenty-six percent of the students did not perceive the confederate to be sad; rather their most common response was that the confederate was bored: one of these students expressed verbal concern; 33% responded with nonverbal concern, 60% either avoided or responded nonverbally with no demonstration of concern.

Most students (57%) experienced neutral (bored, OK) emotions prior to the experiment: 15% of these students expressed verbal concern, and 15% expressed nonverbal concern; 70% either avoided/ignored the confederate or responded without any demonstration of concern. Forty-three percent of the students experienced positive emotions (happy) prior to the experiment: 4% of these students expressed verbal concern for the confederate and 48% expressed nonverbal concern for the confederate; 48% of these students responded with no concern. None of the students expressed negative emotions preceding the experiment.

Seventy-nine percent of the students had no emotional change (e.g., feeling OK before and after the experiment) during the experiment: 63% of these students expressed no concern toward the confederate; 37% expressed either nonverbal or verbal concern. Sixteen percent of the students experienced positive emotional change during the experiment: 67% expressed nonverbal concern toward the confederate, and 33% did not express concern. Five percent experienced negative emotional change during the experiment: none of these students expressed concern toward the confederate.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Results

Step-wise regression analyses. Step-wise regression analysis indicated all of the checklists and rating scales to be significant predictors of students' situational responding in the compassion stimulus experiment, and to account for 20.3% of the variance of students' responses. The Peer Checklist was found to account for the largest amount of variance (13.2%), with the other measurement indices following: the Peer Rating Scale accounted for 3.9% of the variance of responses for which the Peer Checklist had not accounted; the Parent Checklist accounted for 1.8% of the variance of responses for which the Peer Checklist and Peer Rating Scale had not accounted; the Self-Report Checklist accounted for 1.1% of the variance of responses for which the Peer Checklist, Peer Rating Scale, and Parent Checklist had not accounted; the Teacher Rating Scale accounted for .2% of the variance of students' responses for which the previous indices had not accounted; the Parent Rating Scale accounted for .1% of the variance of responses for which the previous indices (including the Teacher Rating Scale) had not accounted.

A second step-wise regression analysis for which the pseudo scales and A/R Ratio were included in addition to the rating scales and checklists, indicated that the Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale and A/R ratio are also significant predictors of the students' situational responding. When the pseudo scales and A/R Ratio were included with the rating scales and checklists in the step-wise regression, the regression dropped the Parent Rating Scale as a significant predictor. It can be noted that the Parent Rating Scale only accounted for an additional .1%

of the variance of students' situational responding in the last step-wise analysis.

This step-wise analysis again entered the Peer Checklist first. The Peer Checklist accounted for 13.2% of the variance, with the remaining indices following in the succeeding sequence: the Peer Rating Scale accounted for 3.9% of the variance of responses not related to the Peer Checklist; the Self-Report Pseudo Scale accounted for 1.9% of the variance of students' responses not related to the Peer Checklist or Peer Rating Scale; the Self-Report Checklist accounted for 2% of the variance of students' responses not related to the previous indices; the A/R Ratio accounted for 2% of the variance of students' responses not related to the previous indices (including the Self-Report Checklist); the Parent Checklist accounted for 2% of the variance not accounted for by the previous indices (including the A/R Ratio); the Teacher Rating Scale accounted for 1% of the variance in students' responses not accounted for by the previously mentioned indices. The Peer Checklist, Peer Rating Scale, Self-Report Pseudo Scale, Self-Report Checklist, A/R Ratio, Parent Checklist, and Teacher Rating Scale accounted for 26% of the students' situational responding.

A third step-wise regression analysis found the students' cognitions regarding the distressed confederate's emotional state to be a significant predictor of students' situational responding in the Compassion-Stimulus experiment. Seven percent of the students' responses can be predicted by knowing their cognitions (concern, no concern, negative reaction) regarding their perception of the confederate's emotional state. Students' immediate emotions, emotional changes, and perceptions of the confederate's emotional state were not found to be significant predictors.

Pearson Product Moment correlations. Several of the checklists and rating scales were found to correlate significantly with each other as well as with the students' Compassion Behavior Ratings of their responding to the distressed confederate, A/R Ratio, and Pseudo Scores. Significant correlations were also found for Pseudo Scores, A/R Ratios, and Compassion Behavior Ratings.

The Peer Checklist significantly correlates with the highest number of checklists and rating scales, including the Self-Report Checklist (.27), Parent Checklist (.27), Teacher Rating Scale (.37), and Peer Rating Scale (.44). The Self-Report Checklist significantly correlates with the next highest number of checklists and rating scales including the Peer Checklist (.27), Peer Rating Scale (.27), and the Parent Rating Scale (.24) (approached significance, p = .07). The Parent Checklist significantly correlates with the Parent Rating Scale (.43).

The Compassion Behavior Ratings of students' situational responding in the Compassion-Stimulus experiment significantly and positively correlates with several of the indices, including the Self-Report Checklist (.23), Peer Checklist (.36), Parent Checklist (.26), Peer Rating Scale (.33), and A/R Ratio (.21). The Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale correlates significantly and negatively with the Self-Report Checklist (-.29), Parent Checklist (-.34), and Peer Rating Scale (-.29). The Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale correlates significantly and negatively with the Parent Checklist (-.36), and Peer Checklist (-.22), and nearly significantly (.06) with the Parent Rating Scale (-.25). The Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale correlates significantly and positively with the Teacher Rating Scale (.27). The Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale correlates almost significantly (.07) and positively with the Self-Report Pseudo

Scale (.20). The A/R Ratio correlates significantly and positively with the Self-Report Checklist (.87), Peer Rating Scale (.26), and almost significantly (.06) with the Peer Checklist (.20).

ANOVA. Analyses of variance indicated that some significant differences for sex, grade level, teachers, and confederates, regarding the students' scores on certain of the measurement indices were found. These are briefly presented below.

Differences (approaching significance) were found for the sex (M, F) of students regarding their Compassion Behavior Ratings (1-5, 1 = highest, 5 = lowest). Males were more often given a Compassion Behavior Rating of 1, while females were more often given a compassion rating of 4; males and females were given ratings of 2, 3, and 5 about as often.

Differences were found for the grade level of students regarding the Teacher Rating Scale Score. It seems that only sixth-grade students were given ratings of 1 and 2 by their teachers, whereas only fourth-grade students were given ratings of 5 by their teachers; ratings of 3 and 4 seem to have been given to fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students.

Different Teachers (numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) seem to have given different ratings (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) to the students on the Teacher Rating Scale. Teacher number 5 seems to have given ratings of 1 and 2 most often, whereas the lower numbered Teachers (1-3) tended to give ratings of 5 more often than higher numbered (4,5) Teachers. All Teachers probably gave ratings of 3 and 4, while the middle numbered Teachers (3,4) possibly did so more often. All teachers were assigned numbers (1-5) according to the convenience of the experimenter.

Students seemed to have perceived the confederate's (numbers 1, 2, 3, or 4) emotional state (sad, unsure, not sad) differently according to the confederate with whom they interacted. It appears that the higher numbered confederate tended to be perceived as sad more often. Confederates were assigned numbers (1-4) according to the convenience of the experimenter.

Differences were found in the students' peer ratings according to the confederate with whom they intereacted. It seems that, generally, the higher numbered confederates were with students who had been given higher peer ratings (3 and 4).

Students' Compassion Behavior Ratings were different according to the confederate with whom they interacted. Students tended to be receiving higher Compassion Behavior Ratings when they were with higher numbered confederates.

Frequency analyses. In the Compassion-Stimulus experiment: (a) 26.7% of the students ignored or avoided the confederate; (b) 33.3% of the students were attentive nonverbally without demonstrating concern; (c) 3.3% of the students verbally interacted without directly attempting to help; (d) 25% of the students responded nonverbally with demonstrated concern to the confederate; and (e) 11.7% of the students responded with verbal concern to the confederate.

Only about one-third of the students expressed cognitions indicating concern regarding their perceptions of the confederate, and over one-half of these responded nonverbally (26%) or verbally (32%) with concern. About two-thirds of the students expressed neutral cognitions and 68% of these individuals ignored or avoided, or responded nonverbally with no demonstration of concern to the confederate in the Compassion-Stimulus experiment.

Fifty-eight percent of the students perceived the confederate to be upset, and about one-half of these students expressed either nonverbal or verbal concern. Seventeen percent were not sure if the confederate was sad or not, and none of these students expressed verbal concern, while 20% expressed nonverbal concern. Most students (70%) either avoided or responded nonverbally with no concern to the confederate. Twenty-six percent did not perceive the confederate as sad, rather they thought the confederate was bored, most often. One of these students expressed verbal concern and most of them either avoided the confederate or responded nonverbally with no concern to her.

A little over one-half (57%) of the students experienced neutral emotions prior to the experiment, and 30% of these students expressed concern to the confederate. A little under one-half (43%) of the students experienced positive emotions prior to the experiment, and 52% of these students expressed concern for the confederate.

More (79%) of the students had no emotional changes during the experiment, and most (63%) of these students did not express concern toward the confederate. Sixteen percent of the students experienced positive emotional change during the experiment, and most (67%) of these students responded with concern to the confederate. Only 5% experienced negative emotional change and none of these students expressed concern toward the confederate.

Conclusions and Implications

For many years, positive social behaviors in children and adults have been researched. Investigators have been perplexed as to how to predict the occurrence of these efficacious behaviors in humans. This research endeavor indicates that these behaviors in children can now be measured and predicted. In particular, compassionate behaving as defined by the children themselves (fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-graders) can be predicted if certain information about these students is known.

The most powerful combination of predictors which account for 26% of the variance of students' situational responding to a distressed/sad confederate are the: Peer Checklist, Peer Rating Scale, Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale, Self-Report Checklist, Altruistic/Reciprocity Ratio, Parent Checklist, and Teacher Rating Scale. Therefore, if Peer Checklists, Self-Report Checklists, Parent Checklists, Peer Ratings, and Teacher Ratings are collected for students in the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade, their compassionate responding can be predicted, accounting for 26% of the variance of responding.

It seems also that by knowing students' thoughts about what they perceive a younger child to be feeling or experiencing, one can predict compassionate responding; however, these thoughts or cognitions account for only 7% of the variance in responding. Therefore, if one knows whether a child is thinking concerned, neutral/unrelated, or negative thoughts about a distressed or sad younger child, then the person is aided in his or her prediction of situational compassionate responding of the child.

Correlation of measurement indices. Many of the measurement indices used to predict compassionate behaving are related to one another. The Peer Checklist is significantly correlated with the highest number of the other indices as well as being the strongest predictor of compassionate behaving. The Self-Report Checklist (Revised) also significantly correlates with several other indices. Therefore all of these forms are both related to each other and uniquely and additionally contributing something toward the prediction of compassionate responding.

It is also interesting to note that the Self-Report Checklist Pseudo Scale and Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale correlate significantly and negatively with many of the checklists and rating scale scores. This may support the pseudo scales as measuring something quite different from compassionate behavior; in fact, they seem to be measuring something which contraindicates compassionate responding, as is evidenced in the paper on test construction by Landsman and Clawson-Marsh (1981). Since the two pseudo scales (Parent and Self-Report) are almost significantly and positively correlated, one may assume that these scales are measuring something similar for both the children and their parents; yet the low correlation may indicate that the scales are also measuring something quite different for each.

The Teacher Rating Scale correlates positively and significantly with the Parent Checklist Pseudo Scale. These results again support Teacher's ratings as being biased (Staub, 1974), and as possibly measuring social desirability or conforming behavior rather than actual compassionate responding. This is further supported by the fact that teachers ratings are not significantly correlated with situational compassionate behaviors of children in a non-evaluated setting; whereas all of the other measurement indices (except for the Parent Rating Scale) are positively and significantly correlated with the children's situational compassionate behaving. In addition, the Teacher Rating Scale correlates negatively and significantly with the Peer Checklist which is the highest predictor of compassionate situational responding.

The Altruistic/Reciprocity Ratio correlates very highly with the Self-Report Checklist, as well as correlating positively with the Peer Rating Scale, Peer Checklist, and situational compassionate behaving. The altruistic and reciprocity endings which were included in the revised Self-Report Checklist increased the predictive validity of the Checklist, as well as demonstrated their own predictive validity. It appears, then, that children's reports of their internal thoughts in addition to their behaviors, are important as predictors of their actual situational compassionate responding.

Overall compassionate responding. Children's overall responses to an emotionally distressed younger child were not overwhelmingly filled with love and concern. Only 36.7% of the children responded concerned toward the younger child, and only 11.7% actually helped or responded verbally with concern. This seems to indicate a need for methods of helping children to reach out and support one another in times of distress. These types of behaviors are most certainly necessary for human survival and they are imperative for the enhancement of human relating (Staub, 1978). It appears that many children do respond with concern toward a distressed person, yet they are possibly unable or confused about how to relate to the distressed person. These issues are open for research and discovery of successful approaches.

Differences across sex, grade levels, teachers, and confederates. A difference may exist for males and females in their compassionate responding toward a distressed or sad younger child. It seems that males avoid or ignore the distressed child more often than females, and females tend to respond with nonverbal concern more frequently. Males and females, however, tend to respond verbally with concern at about the same frequency. This possible reflects Hoffman's reasoning that, generally, helping others is not a dominant value for males. The males may be ignoring the distressed child more often as a result of this implicit pressure; yet since males actually respond verbally with concern as often as females, it seems that they are overriding these social pressures and responding to the immediate concern of the younger child in the non-evaluated situation.

Different teachers seemed to have rated their students differently in this study. The sixth-grade teacher tended to give lower ratings, whereas the fourth-grade teacher tended to give higher ratings. This seems to provide even further support for bias in teachers' ratings of students.

Confederates may have had some influence on the situational compassionate behaving of students; however, this continues to be questionable. The students did perceive the higher numbered confederates to be sad, and responded with concern more often than they did with the lower numbered confederates. Yet, the higher numbered confederates tended to be interacting with students who had been given higher peer ratings. Therefore, one would expect that these students with higher peer ratings would be more perceptive and tend to respond with concern more often, especially since peer ratings are the second highest predictor of situational compassionate responding.

Comparison with pilot study. One important consistency of this report with the pilot study is the predictive validity of the Peer Checklist. The Peer Checklist was the highest predictive variable for compassionate responding, in both studies. The present study, however, indicated many more of the checklists and rating scales to be valid predictors than did the pilot study, yet some differences were expected because of the large increase of the sample size used in the regression analysis for this study (pilot n = 19; present n = 60). In addition, the Parent Rating Scale was found to be a significant predictor of compassionate behaving in the pilot study whereas the Parent Rating Form was the least of the predictors in the present study.

Correlations for checklists and rating scales overall tended to be similar in the two studies except for the Self-Report Checklist and the Parent Rating Scale. The revised Self-Report Checklist (used in this study) tended to correlate with many more of the checklists and rating scales, than did the unrevised Self-Report Checklist, as well as being a more valid predictor of situational compassionate responding. The Parent Rating Scale seemed to lose its validity as a predictor in this study and only correlated with the Parent Checklist, as opposed to correlating with several forms in the pilot study.

Another difference between the two studies involves the change from students' perceptions being a predictor of compassionate behaving in the pilot study to students' cognition having predictive validity in the present study. It seems that even though many of the students perceived the distressed child to be sad in this study, many of them continued to ignore or respond to the distressed child without concern more often than in the pilot study. This phenomenon may result from the change in time of the year during which the studies were carried out. The pilot study occurred during late winter and early spring; whereas the present study was completed during the last month of school among testing and other activities associated with school ending. Perhaps the children tended to be less inclined to act concerned or reach out to the distressed child, even though they perceived her as sad, because of their concern about other activities (e.g., being tested). Their anxiety level did appear to be quite high as evidenced by their restlessness and "finger tapping" in the audio-visual tapes.

Recommendations

Staub (1979) recommended that many different indices be used in research concerning the measurement of positive social behavior. This suggestion is supported by this endeavor to measure and predict compassionate behavior in children. The checklists and rating scales are much more powerful predictors of compassionate responding when combined. The future holds unlimited opportunity for many creative investigations using the checklists and rating scales as predictors of compassionate behaving. It is suggested that a longitudinal study in which the researcher will observe longer and more frequent samples over time be completed. It seems also advantageous to validate the scales for additional grade levels, e.g., first through seventh grade, for a wider range of use.

One important finding from the research involves peers as being able to predict the behavior of one another most efficiently, when compared with parents, self-reports, and teachers. This knowledge opens the door for peers to serve as models for one another in facilitating compassionate responding. Peer modeling has been demonstrated to be quite effective (Bandura, 1969; Bryan & Walbeck, 1970; Elliot & Vosta, 1970; Hartup & Coates, 1967; Liebert, Fernandez, & Gill, 1969), and merits attention as a possible enhancer of compassionate human interchange.

It is also recommended that research be continued which will focus on teachers' ratings of their students. They tend to be rating students on behavior which is socially desirable or acceptable rather than on behavior which has altruistic or compassionate intentions. Perhaps teachers can be educated toward alternative approaches with their students which involve less emphasis on punishment as a means to squelch unwanted or non-socially acceptable behaviors and more emphasis on interacting with compassion and love. This approach along with having peers interact as compassionate models hopefully will encourage the existence of a more nourishing environment.

Many students who have had difficult family backgrounds will benefit from therapy or counseling, and these services can be made available to them. Therapy groups can be very supportive and provide the love for which many of the young souls are thirsting.

It is hoped that this research will add positively to the present body of research and inspire further investigation in the area of compassionate behavior. With compassionate interchange, schools, and therefore society, can change from strict disciplinary approaches to expressions of compassion and love -- those expressions which instill the discipline of life.

APPENDIX A: SELF-REPORT, PARENT AND PEER CHECKLISTS, REVISED SELF-REPORT CHECKLIST.

Instructions for Self-Report Checklist

We are interested in the different kinds of things that children do for other people.

This is a list of items taken from our talks with children describing some of the things that they have done for others.

What we would like you to do is to look at each of the statements and check them off only if you can recall doing some things like this in your life.

We know that there will be some things on the list that you have not done before. This is ok, we do not expect you to check off everything on the list. It is very important to check off only what you have done. If for some reason you cannot remember doing some of these things just leave them blank.

If you have any questions about the statements, please stop and ask us before you make a check.

Name_______________________________Male_____Age_____

Teacher____________________________Female_____Grade_____

If you have ever done any of these things in your life, please check each of them off. If you have not, please leave those things that you have not done blank. If you cannot remember doing some of these things, please do not check them off.

1. _____I helped someone when they were hurt, even though I had somewhere else to go.
2. _____I treated someone to something fun -- like a movie, bowling, dancing, and a carnival, etc.
3. _____I gave a friend my last piece of candy.
4. _____I fixed a meal for someone as a surprise.
5. _____I let someone borrow something special of mine.
6. _____I treated someone to ice cream.
7. _____I showed someone that I loved them.
8. _____I helped my parents when they needed it.
9. _____I bought a friend a treat when I couldn't have one.

10. _____I gave another person something pretty.

11. _____I didn't go to something I wanted to go to because my friend wasn't invited.

12. _____I gave nice things to an old woman or man.

13. _____I painted or drew a special picture for a friend.

14. _____Sometimes I blame other people when I do something wrong.

15. _____I gossip a little sometimes.

16. _____I helped someone feel good when they started to cry.

17. _____When a special day came for someone, I made a gift for them.

18. _____I saved another person from being beat up or hurt when I knew I might get hurt.

19. _____A friend was having trouble putting on a coat or jacket and I helped them.

20. _____I wrote a song for a friend.

21. _____I told someone I'd stick by them no matter what happens.

22. _____I helped someone with their homework when they didn't understand.

23. _____When a grown-up yells at me sometimes I get scared.

24. _____I stuck up for a friend when others were talking about him/her.

25. _____I gave another person flowers for no special reason.

26. _____I helped someone feel better when they were down.

27. _____I gave another kid something nice when they were sick.

Parent's Name______________________________

Child's Name______________________________

Grade_________

Teacher__________________________________

Instructions For Parents' Checklist

We are interested in the different kinds of things that children do for other people.

This is a list of items taken from our talks with children describing some of the things that they have done for others.

What we would like you to do is to look at each of the statements and check them off only if you can recall your child doing something like this in your life.

We know that there will be some things on the list that your child has not done before. This is ok; we do not expect you to check off everything on the list. It is very important to check off only what your child has done. If for some reason you cannot remember your child doing some of these things just leave them blank.

If you have any questions about the statements, please stop and ask us before you make a check.

1. _____Your child helped someone when they were hurt, even though he/she had somewhere else to go.
2. _____Your child treated someone to something fun -- like a movie, bowling, dancing, and a carnival, etc.
3. _____Your child gave a friend his/her last piece of candy.
4. _____Your child fixed a meal for someone as a surprise.
5. _____Your child let someone borrow something special of his/hers.
6. _____Your child treated someone to ice cream.
7. _____Your child showed someone that he/she loved them.
8. _____Your child helped his/her parents when they needed it.
9. _____Your child bought a friend a treat when he/she couldn't have one.
10. _____Your child gave another person something pretty.
11. _____Your child didn't go to something he/she wanted to go to because his/her friend was not invited.

12. _____Your child gave nice things to an old woman or man.

13. _____Your child painted or drew a special picture for a friend.

14. _____Sometimes your child blames other people when he/she does something wrong.

15. _____Your child gossips a little sometimes.

16. _____Your child helped someone feel good when they started to cry.

17. _____When a special day came for someone, your child made a gift for them.

18. _____Your child saved another person from being beat up or hurt when your child knew he/she might get hurt.

19. _____A friend was having trouble putting on a coat or jacket and your child helped them.

20. _____Your child wrote a song for a friend.

21. _____Your child told someone he/she would stick by them no matter what happens.

22. _____Your child helped someone with their homework when they didn't understand.

23. _____When a grown-up yells at your child sometimes he/she gets scared.

24. _____Your child stuck up for a friend when others were talking about him/her.

25. _____Your child gave another person flowers for no special reason.

26. _____Your child helped someone feel better when they were down.

27. _____Your child gave another kid something nice when they were sick.

Thank you for your cooperation. Please return this form to us in the enclosed stamped envelope.

Instructions For Peer Checklist

We are interested in the different kinds of things that children do for other people.

This is a list of items taken from our talks with children describing some of the things that they have done for others.

What we would like you to do is to look at each of the statements and check them off only if you recall your classmate doing something like this in his/her life.

We know there will be some things on the list that your classmate has not done before, or you may not have seen your classmate do. This is ok, we do not expect you to check off everything on the list. It is very important to check off only what you know your friend has done. If for some reason you cannot remember him/her doing these things, just leave them blank.

If you have any questions about the statements, please stop and ask us before you make a check.

You will check those statements your classmate, __________________ has done. If your classmate has not done these things, please leave those things blank. If you cannot remember him/her doing some of these things, please do not check them off.

Your name____________________________

Your teacher_________________________

Age_____ Grade________ Male____ Female______

1. _____I helped someone when they were hurt, even though I had somewhere else to go.
2. _____I treated someone to something fun -- like a movie, bowling, dancing, and a carnival, etc.
3. _____I gave a friend my last piece of candy.
4. _____I fixed a meal for someone as a surprise.
5. _____I let someone borrow something special of mine.
6. _____I treated someone to ice cream.
7. _____I showed someone that I loved them.
8. _____I helped my parents when they needed it.
9. _____I bought a friend a treat when I couldn't have one.

Instructions For Self-Report Checklist (Revised)

We are interested in the different kinds of things that children do for other people.

This is a list of statements taken from other children's descriptions about some of the things that they have done for others.

We would like you to read each of the statements. If you can recall doing something like this in your life, put a check beside it.

There will be some things on the list that you have not done before. This is OK. It is very important to check off only what you have done. If you cannot remember doing some of these things, just leave them blank. Only check the statement if you felt and thought the same things that the statement describes.

Name____________________________________ Male_________ Age._________

Teacher_________________________________ Female________ Grade________

1. _____I helped my parents when they needed it so they would let me do what I wanted later.

2. _____I gave nice things to an old woman or man so that the old man or woman would feel better.

3. _____I saved another person from being beat up or hurt when I knew I might get hurt because I cared.

4. _____I wrote a song for a friend to show how much I really care.

5. _____I treated someone to ice cream because he or she had treated me before.

6. _____I gave another person something pretty because I wanted him or her to pay attention to me.

7. _____I treated someone to something fun, like a movie, bowling, dancing, or a carnival, so later he or she would do the same thing for me.

8. _____I fixed a meal for someone as a surprise so that he or she would surprise me later.

9. _____I painted or drew a special picture for a friend so that my friend would see how good I could make it.

10. _____I helped someone feel good when she or he started to cry so that I could have more fun with him or her.

11. _____A friend was having trouble putting on a coat or jacket and I

10. _____I gave another person something pretty.

11. _____I didn't go to something I wanted to go to because my friend wasn't invited.

12. _____I gave nice things to an old woman or man.

13. _____I painted or drew a special picture for a friend.

14. _____I helped someone feel good when they started to cry.

15. _____When a special day came for someone, I made a gift for them.

16. _____I saved another person from being beat up or hurt when I knew I might get hurt.

17. _____A friend was having trouble putting on a coat or jacket and I helped them.

18. _____I wrote a song for a friend.

19. _____I told someone I'd stick by them no matter what happens.

20. _____I helped someone with their homework when they didn't understand.

21. _____I stuck up for a friend when others were talking about him/her.

22. _____I gave another person flowers for no special reason.

23. _____I helped someone feel better when they were down.

24. _____I gave another kid something nice when they were sick.

helped so they would help me with mine later.

12. _____I helped someone with homework when she or he didn't understand in order to show how smart I am.

13. _____I gave a friend my last piece of candy because I thought my friend would like it.

14. _____I helped someone who was hurt, even though I had somewhere else to go because I cared and I did not want him or her to hurt.

15. _____I let someone borrow something special of mine so he or she would like me.

16. _____I bought a friend a treat when I couldn't have one because I wanted my friend to know that he or she is special.

17. _____I have shown certain people that I loved them because I know that they would be upset if I did not show them.

18. _____Since my friend was not invited, I did not go to something I wanted to go to, so that my friend would feel special.

19. _____Sometimes I blame other people when I do something wrong.

20. _____When a special day came for someone, I made a gift for him or her because that person is very special to me.

21. _____I told my friend I'd stick by him or her no matter what happens because I knew I might need the same thing done for me later.

22. _____I treated someone to something fun, like a movie, bowling, dancing, or a carnival because I thought he or she would have fun.

23. _____I gave another kid something nice when she or he was sick because I thought it might help the kid feel better.

24. _____When a grown-up yells at me sometimes I get scared.

25. _____I gave another person flowers for no special reason because I think that they are so special.

26. _____I helped someone feel better when they were down because I cared about their feelings.

27. _____I stuck up for a friend when others were talking about him or her because my friend is special to me.

28. _____I fixed a meal for someone as a surprise because I thought that it would make him or her feel good.

29. _____I treated someone to ice cream so he or she would have fun

eating it.

30. _____I helped my parents when they needed it because I knew they would feel happy.

31. _____I gave another person something pretty because I wanted him or her to know that I care.

32. _____I gave nice things to an old man or woman so that the old man or woman could see how nice I am.

33. _____I helped someone feel good when he or she started to cry because I cared about that person's feelings.

34. _____I saved another person from being beat up or hurt when I knew I might get hurt because other people were watching me.

35. _____I wrote a song for a friend so that my friend would like me best.

36. _____I helped someone with homeowrk when she or he didn't understand because I knew that person needed some help.

37. _____I helped someone who was hurt, even though I had somewhere else to go so that others would not think I was selfish.

38. _____I gave a friend my last piece of candy so my friend would like me.

39. _____I let someone borrow something special of mine because I knew he or she really liked it.

40. _____I have shown certain people that I loved them because they are important to me.

41. _____I bought a friend a treat when I couldn't have one so my friend would be happy about being with me.

42. _____I didn't go to something I wanted to go to because my friend wasn't invited so that my friend would do that for me some day.

43. _____I painted or drew a special picture for a friend because it made my friend feel better.

44. _____I gossip a little sometimes.

45. _____When a special day came for someone, I made a gift for him or her so that person would buy me something special later.

46. _____A friend was having trouble putting on a coat or jacket and I helped in order to make it easier for him or her.

47. _____I told my friend I'd stick by him or her no matter what happens

because I knew my friend needed me.

48. _____I gave another kid something nice when he or she was sick because my parents made me.

49. _____I stuck up for a friend when others were talking about him or her because if I didn't my friend might find out and not like me anymore.

50. _____I gave another person flowers for no special reason so they would be nice to me.

51. _____I helped someone feel better when they were down because then they would be more fun to be with.

APPENDIX B: TEACHER, PARENT AND PEER RATING SCALES

Form C

Instructions for Parents' Rating Form

We are interested in understanding children who are concerned for the welfare of others and who tend to act on that concern. These children are sometimes referred to as compassionate or highly functioning children. Some examples of the behaviors and feelings a high functioning child expresses are included below.

> She/He gives others his/her own material possession: i.e., sharing lunch, lending or giving something treasured personally.
>
> He/She helps others: i.e., helping another with school problems, helping another make something, helping someone with chores without being asked, sticking up for a friend in trouble, aiding someone who is hurt.
>
> He/She spends time and effort for the benefit of others: i.e., making something for someone, visiting a sick friend or family member, going to an event with a friend even though he/she is not interested in the event.
>
> She/He cares deeply for others; he/she expresses care and the accompanying emotional feelings: i.e., expressing love for a close one, writing a song or poem for a friend, talking about personal feelings, expressing care and concern for someone hurt possibly even to the extent of risking harm to self, talking with someone who is down or crying.

Most kids express some of these behaviors; however, high level functioning children tend to express most if not all of these behaviors much more frequently than the other children.

We would like for you to rate your child, ________________ according to your assessment of his or her level of compassionate functioning. Will you please check the appropriate level on a separate form for your child. We appreciate very much your time and effort involved.

Parents' Rating Form (b)

Please check the appropriate level at which you consider the child to be functioning.

NAME OF CHILD____________________________________GRADE_______________

NAME OF PARENT____

_________Level 1	Child seems to be centered on self, rather than expressing interest in others. No apparent helping or giving behaviors are observed. Child seems to lack overt expression of caring and accompanying emotional feelings for others. Therefore, the child tends not to spend time in such a way as to benefit another, the child may demonstrate hurting behaviors toward others.
_________Level 2	Child shows little interest in others. A few helping behaviors and/or giving behaviors are observed infrequently. Few and infrequent caring behaviors and associated emotional feelings are expressed toward others. Once in a while the child will spend time for another person's enjoyment or benefit.
_________Level 3	Child tends to express concern for others at times, and seems to express the behaviors mentioned in Levels 1 and 2 about as frequent as most of the other kids do.
_________Level 4	Child seems to show much interest and concern for others, standing out from other class members in this respect. Giving and helping behaviors are expressed frequently to others. He/She tends to express deep caring and shares these feelings with others. She/He will spend considerable time doing things which another person may benefit from.
_________Level 5	Child expresses behaviors of Level 4 with one important distinction. This child might risk or actually does risk his/her own life for another person in situations which call for such an action.

Instructions for Teachers' Rating Form

We are interested in understanding children who are concerned for the welfare of others and who tend to act on that concern. These children are sometimes referred to as compassionate or highly functioning children. Some examples of the behaviors and feelings a high functioning child expresses are included below.

> She/He gives others his/her own material possession: i.e., sharing lunch, lending or giving something treasured personally.
>
> He/She helps others: i.e., helping another with school problems, helping another make something, helping someone with chores without being asked, sticking up for a friend in trouble, aiding someone who is hurt.
>
> He/She spends time and effort for the benefit of others: i.e., making something for someone, visiting a sick friend or family member, going to an event with a friend even though he/she is not interested in the event.
>
> She/He cares deeply for others; he/she expresses care and the accompanying emotional feelings: i.e., expressing love for a close one, writing a song or poem for a friend, talking about personal feelings, expressing care and concern for someone hurt possibly even to the extent of risking harm to self, talking with someone who is down or crying.

Most kids express some of these behaviors; however, high level functioning children tend to express most if not all of these behaviors much more frequently than the other children.

We would like for you to rate each child in your class according to your assessment of his or her level of compassionate functioning. Will you please check the appropriate level on a separate form for each child. We appreciate very much your time and effort involved.

Teachers' Rating Form (b)

Please check the appropriate level at which you consider the child to be functioning.

NAME OF CHILD____________________________________GRADE_____________

NAME OF TEACHER____

_________Level 1	Child seems to be centered on self, rather than expressing interest in others. No apparent helping behaviors or giving behaviors are observed. Child seems to lack overt expression of caring and accompanying emotional feelings for others. Therefore, the child tends not to spend time in such a way as to benefit another, the child may demonstrate hurting behaviors toward others.
_________Level 2	Child shows little interest in others. A few helping behaviors and/or giving behaviors are observed infrequently. Few and infrequent caring behaviors and associated emotional feelings are expressed toward others. Once in a while the child will spend time for another person's enjoyment or benefit.
_________Level 3	Child tends to express concern for others at times, and seems to express the behaviors mentioned in Levels 1 and 2 about as frequent as most of the other kids do.
_________Level 4	Child seems to show much interest and concern for others, standing out from other class members in this respect. Giving and helping behaviors are expressed frequently to others. He/She tends to express deep caring and shares these feelings with others. She/He will spend considerable time doing things which another person may benefit from.
_________Level 5	Child expresses behaviors of Level 4 with one important distinction. This child might risk or actually does risk his/her own life for another person in situations which call for such an action.

Children's Rating Form for Classmates

Please check the level of compassion that describes your classmate.

Name of child______________________________________Grade___________

Your name____

_____Level 1	My classmate seems to be centered on him or herself. I don't see her or him giving other kids things or helping out other kids. My classmate doesn't seem to express feelings of caring about other kids. I think he or she might hurt someone.
_____Level 2	My classmate shows only a little interest in others. Once in a while he or she will help someone or give them something. My classmate very seldom expresses feelings or caring.
_____Level 3	My classmate is concerned about other kids sometimes. He or she does express caring feelings along with giving and helping other kids. I think my classmate cares about the same as most other kids do.
_____Level 4	My classmate shows a lot of interest and caring for other kids, and I believe he or she does this much more than most kids. My classmate gives other kids a lot, and he or she help them out very often. My classmate cares deeply and expresses these feelings to other kids.
_____Level 5	My classmate does and feels all of the same things as Level 4. In addition to this, I think my classmate would actually risk his or her own life to help another person if that person needed it.

APPENDIX C: EMOTION SHEET

Emotions

OK

Bored

Happy

Sad

APPENDIX D: SCORING KEYS

Self-Report Checklist

Statement No.	Rating Score	Pseudo Score
1.	4	
2.	2	
3.	2	
4.	2	
5.	2	
6.	2	
7.	3	(3)
8.	2	(2)
9.	2	
10.	2	
11.	3	
12.	3	
13.	3	
14.	0	(1)
15.	0	(1)
16.	3	
17.	3	
18.	4	
19.	1	
20.	3	
21.	2	
22.	2	
23.	0	(1)
24.	4	
25.	3	
26.	2	
27.	2	

Self-Report Checklist (Revised): Score Sheet

Statement No.	A/R Scores	Rating/Pseudo Scores	Statement No.	A/R Scores	Rating/Pseudo Scores
1.	R		24.		0/(1)
2.	A	3	25.	A	3
3.	A	4	26.	A	2
4.	A	3	27.	A	4
5.	R		28.	A	2
6.	R		29.	A	2
7.	R		30.	A	2/(2)
8.	R		31.	A	2
9.	R		32.	R	
10.	R		33.	A	3
11.	R		34.	R	
12.	R		35.	R	
13.	A	2	36.	A	2
14.	A	4	37.	R	
15.	R		38.	R	
16.	A	2	39.	A	2
17.	R		40.	A	3/(3)
18.	A	3	41.	R	
19.		0/(1)	42.	R	
20.	A	3	43.	A	3
21.	R		44.		0/(1)
22.	A	2	45.	R	
23.	A	2	46.	A	1

Self-Report Checklist (Revised): Score Sheet (cont.)

Statement No.	A/R Scores	Rating/Pseudo Scores
47.	A	2
48.	R	
49.	R	
50.	R	
51.	R	

Instructions For Peer Checklist: Score Sheets

Statement No.	Rating Score
1.	4
2.	2
3.	2
4.	2
5.	2
6.	2
7.	3
8.	2
9.	2
10.	2
11.	3
12.	3
13.	3
14.	3
15.	3
16.	4
17.	1
18.	3
19.	2
20.	2
21.	4
22.	3
23.	2
24.	2

Instructions For Parents' Checklist: Score Sheets

Statement No.	Rating Score	Pseudo Score	Statement No.	Rating Score	Pseudo Score
1.	4		24.	4	
2.	2		25.	3	
3.	2		26.	2	
4.	2		27.	2	
5.	2				
6.	2				
7.	3	(3)			
8.	2	(2)			
9.	2				
10.	2				
11.	3				
12.	3				
13.	3				
14.	0	(1)			
15.	0	(1)			
16.	3				
17.	3				
18.	4				
19.	1				
20.	3				
21.	2				
22.	2				
23.	0	(1)			
24.					

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Lynda M. Clawson-Marsh is presently interning in counseling psychology at the Georgia State University Counseling Center. After completing her Ph.D. in counseling psychology, Lynda plans to work with both inpatients and outpatients as well as developing community comprehensive treatment centers for individuals who have recently been released from mental institutions. In addition she will establish a private practice in counseling psychology.

Lynda has participated in research activities involving compassionate behavior in children for the past two years, and plans to continue these pursuits. She has also written and published in other areas. Some of her research publications and writings include "Compassionate Behavior in Children: Measurement and Prediction"; "A Compassion Checklist for Children"; *Becoming A Homeprovider: Helping Others and Yourself to Grow*; " Counseling Techniques for Foreign Students in a College Setting"; "A longitudinal Investigation of Donating Behavior"; *Interaction Skills for Community Transition Residents*; *Investigation of the Responsive and Initiative Dimensions in the Client-Therapist Relationship in Gestalt and Behavior Therapies*; "Effects of MSG."

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Ted Landsman

Ted Landsman, Chairman
Professor of Counselor Education and Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Robert Ziller
Professor of Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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